To the PUBLIC.

THOUGH it was our original intention to confine this work to the deſcription of *North America* only, yet the ſmallneſs of the type in which we have printed it, has enabled us to extend our plan in ſo copious a manner, as to take in every thing remarkable on the continent of *South America*, without any additional expence to the purchaſer. Thus, in the compaſs of two pocket volumes, the reader will find every kind of information he would wiſh to acquire, even after he had laboured through the reading of the moſt voluminous works. The account of the riſe and progreſs of the preſent unhappy diſputes between Britain and her colonies will cloſe the work.

No. 9, being the firſt of the ſecond volume, will be publiſhed on Saturday next, embelliſhed with an emblematical frontiſpiece, elegantly deſigned and engraved.

☞ The book-binder is deſired to cancel the title-page given with the firſt number, and bind up the following inſtead of it.

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2 JY 61

BRITISH
2 JY61
MUSEUM

America, North

FRONTISPIECE.

Blest be the Man, whose constant Study tends,
To make America *and* Britain *Friends.*

THE

HISTORY

OF

NORTH and SOUTH AMERICA,

CONTAINING,

An Account of the firſt Diſcoveries of the NEW WORLD,

THE

CUSTOMS, GENIUS, and PERSONS of the original INHABITANTS, and a particular Deſcription of the AIR, SOIL, natural PRODUCTIONS, MANUFACTURES and COMMERCE of each SETTLEMENT.

INCLUDING A

GEOGRAPHICAL, COMMERCIAL, and HISTORICAL SURVEY of the BRITISH SETTLEMENTS, From the earlieſt TIMES to the preſent PERIOD.

WITH AN ACCOUNT OF THE

WEST INDIES and the AMERICAN ISLANDS.

TO WHICH IS ADDED,

An IMPARTIAL ENQUIRY INTO THE PRESENT AMERICAN DISPUTES.

VOL. I.

LONDON:

Printed for J. WHITAKER, in MITRE-COURT, FLEET-STREET, 1776.

BRITISH
MUSEUM

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PREFACE.

AT a time when every ſtate in Europe views, with admiration and ſilent ſuſpenſe, the preſent unhappy conteſt between Great Britain and her Colonies, it is not to be expected, but that every individual of this Nation ſhould intereſt himſelf in ſo important a matter, the event of which is either to raiſe England to the higheſt pinnacle of glory, or ſink it into indelible diſgrace, if not lay the certain foundation of its ruin.

The rage of party, like a torrent, ſweeps every thing before it; and hence too many, on both ſides of the queſtion, argue upon principles formed rather in their wiſh, than founded on reaſon and unerring experience. Others there are, who, though they may mean well, for want of a proper knowledge of the ſubject, run into the ſtrangeſt extravagancies.

To underſtand properly the preſent ſtate of our American affairs, we ought to be well acquainted with the manner in which our Colonies were firſt ſettled, with the

genius and policy of that people, and with the latent cauſes that firſt kindled the ſpark, now burſt into a flame, which rages with almoſt irreſiſtable fury.

It is true, innumerable hiſtories of America have been publiſhed, and a few of them executed in a maſterly manner; yet even the beſt of them have either been confined to ſome particular province, or have been too voluminous and expenſive, to be either purchaſed or ſtudied by the generality of readers.

To obviate theſe difficulties, and to enable readers of every claſs to form a clear idea of the preſent ſtate of American politics, we have ventured to offer this little publication to the world, which being printed in a ſmall ſize, when bound up, we hope, will be a uſeful, we are certain not a cumberſome companion.

We think it adviſeable to begin with the diſcovery of America by Columbus, as it contains many intereſting and curious particulars. The perſons, cuſtoms, and manners of the original inhabitants of America, will follow; and here the reader will meet with many ſtriking examples of what nature is in her rude and uncultivated ſtate. An account of the firſt ſettlement of North America will next engroſs our attention;

and

and here we ſhall particularly deſcribe the genius and diſpoſitions of the firſt adventurers, and the ſtrange infatuations that attended them. We ſhall then proceed to deſcribe each Colony ſeparately, its air, ſoil, commerce, manufactures, natural productions, and whatever ſhall appear moſt intereſting and amuſing.

We ſhall conclude with an account of the Riſe and Progreſs of the preſent diſputes between America and the Mother Country. We are ſenſible how difficult will be the taſk, to avoid even the appearance of partiality in a matter, concerning which opinions are ſo much divided. Undiſmayed by any difficulties whatever, and fearful of nothing but departing from the truth, we ſhall give our ſentiments clearly and undiſguiſed, in hopes of a candid peruſal.

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Explanation of the Frontiſpiece.

BRITANNIA ſeated near the TEMPLE OF CONCORD, ſupports with her left hand a Spear, on the top of which is the CAP OF LIBERTY. Her right hand, in token of reconciliation, is joined with that of AMERICA, whoſe left is employed in diſperſing the emblems of Plenty from a CORNUCOPIA. The ANGEL OF PEACE is hovering over them, and preſenting each with an OLIVE BRANCH. By the ſide of BRITANNIA, the Lion and the Lamb lie couched together, in token, that the moſt ſavage heart can ſometimes forget its ferocity, and ceaſe to oppreſs the unguarded innocent. The Bales of Goods on the Shore, and the Ships on the Ocean, import the revival of TRADE and COMMERCE.

THE

ANCIENT AND PRESENT STATE

OF

NORTH AMERICA.

The Diſcovery of AMERICA *by* COLUMBUS.

TO determine by whom or in what manner America was firſt peopled, is one of thoſe knotty points, which even Time, the unraveller of moſt things, renders more difficult and intricate. The moſt probable *conjecture* is, that America was firſt peopled by the Carthaginians, who were ſituate on the North-Weſt coaſt of Africa, and poſſeſſed the Canary and Cape Verd Iſlands in the Atlantic ocean. As the Carthaginian ſhips carried ſometimes a thouſand people, and were probably crowded with men, women, and children, when they ſent colonies to thoſe Iſlands, it is very natural to expect, that ſome of them ſhould miſs thoſe iſlands,

Islands, and be driven to the West, beyond their intended port. If this ever happened, they must of necessity be driven to America, which is situate but three weeks sail to the Westward of the Canary or Cape Verd Islands. From thence it was impossible for them to return to the Eastern continent, the trade-wind being always opposite to them; and this is perhaps the reason that we never heard any thing of that part of the world, until the use of the compass was discovered, and the art of navigation was improved, whereby a way was found out of sailing into higher latitudes, out of the way of the trade-winds, in order to return to the Eastern continent.

At the time when Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, undertook to extend the boundaries which ignorance had given to the world, the manners of Europe were beginning to rise above that state of barbarity, in which they had been long involved. At this period, several extraordinary events conspired to change the face of all Europe: the discovery of America, the invention of printing, the making of gunpowder, the revival of ancient learning, and the Reformation.

The design of Columbus arose from the just idea he had formed of the figure of the earth; though the maps, more erroneus than his conjectures, made him mistake the object. His design was to find a passage to China and India by the Western Ocean. He performed the duty of a good citizen, and made his first proposal at home, where it was rejected. Discharged

charged of this obligation, he applied to the court of France, and meeting no better ſucceſs there, he next offered his ſervices to our Henry the ſeventh. This prince was rather a prudent ſteward and manager of a kingdom than a great king, and one of thoſe defenſive geniuſes who are the laſt in the world to reliſh a great but problematical deſign. It is therefore no wonder that his brother, whom Columbus had employed to ſolicit in England, after ſeveral years ſpent here, had little ſucceſs in his negotiation. But in Portugal, where he applied himſelf after his failure here, his offers were not only rejected but he was inſulted and ridiculed; but his mind was too great to be conquered by inſult or ridicule, and repulſe contributed to heighten his ardour: he found however, in theſe inſults, and this ridicule, a new incitement to purſue his ſcheme, urged forward by the ſtings of anger and reſentment.

His patience was afterwards exerciſed for eight years together at the court of Ferdinand and Iſabella. He had every day, during this long ſpace, to combat with every objection that want of knowledge, or that a falſe knowlege, could ſuggeſt. Some held that the known world, which they thought was all that could be known, floated like a vaſt ſcum upon the ocean; that the ocean itſelf was infinite. Others, who entertained more juſt notions, and believed that the whole of the earth and waters compoſed one vaſt globe, drew a conſequence from it as abſurd as the former opinion. For they argued, that if Columbus ſhould ſail be-

yond

beyond a certain point, the convexity of this globe would prevent his return. As is usual in such cases, every one abounded with objections. His whole time was spent in fruitless endeavours to enlighten ignorance, to remove prejudice, and to vanquish that obstinate incredulity, which is of all others the greatest enemy to improvement, rejecting every thing as false and absurd, which is ever so little out of the track of common experience. However, with an assiduity and firmness of mind, never enough to be admired and applauded, he at length overcame all difficulties; and, to his inexpressible joy, with a fleet of three ships, and the title and command of an admiral, set sail on the third of August, 1492, on a voyage the most daring and grand in the design, and in the event of which the world was the most concerned, of any that was ever yet undertaken. In honour to the fair sex, and in justice to Isabella, we must here mention, that this scheme was first countenanced, and the equipment made by the queen only; the king had no share in it; she even raised, upon her own jewels, the money necessary for the design.

Columbus had then no chart to direct him, no lights from former navigators, no experience of the winds and currents particular to those seas. He had no guide but his own genius, nor any thing to comfort and appease his companions, discouraged and mutinous with the length and hopelessness of the voyage, but some indications which he drew from the casual appearances of land birds and floating sea-

sea-weeds, most of them little to be depended upon, but which this wise commander, well acquainted with the human heart, always knew how to turn to the best advantage. It was in this expedition that the variation of the compass was first observed; an appearance which has ever since puzzled all philosophers, and which at this time made a great impression upon the pilots of Columbus; when in an unknown and boundless ocean, far from the road of former navigation, Nature itself seemed altered, and the only guide they had left, appeared to be upon the point of forsaking them. But Columbus, with a wonderful quickness and sagacity, pretended to discover a physical cause for this appearance, which, though it did not satisfy himself, was plausible enough to remove something of the terrors of his mariners. However, the crew insisted on his returning, and grew loud and insolent in their demand. Some even talked of throwing the admiral overboard.

His invention, and almost his hopes were near exhausted, when the only thing which could appease them happened; the clear discovery of land, after a voyage of thirty-three days, the longest ever any man was known to be from sight of shore before that time. They landed on one of the islands now called Lucayos, or Bahamas, which is remarkable for nothing but this event; and here it was, that the two worlds, if I may use the expression, were first introduced to one another; a meeting of an extraordinary nature, and

which

which produced great changes in both. The first thing Columbus did, after thanking God for the success of this important voyage, was to take possession of the island in the name of their Catholick majesties, by setting up a cross upon the shore; great multitudes of the inhabitants looking on, ignorant and unconcerned at a ceremony which was to deprive them of their natural liberty. The stay of the Spaniards in this island was but short; they found, from the extreme poverty of the people, that these were by no means the Indies, which they sought for.

Columbus at his departure very prudently took with him some of the natives, that they might learn the Spanish tongue, and be his guides and interpreters in this new scene of affairs; nor were they unwilling to accompany him. He touched on several of the islands in the same cluster, enquiring every where for gold, which was the only object of commerce he thought worth his care, because the only thing that could give the court of Spain an high opinion of his discoveries. All directed him to a great island called Bohio, of which they spoke great things, and principally that it abounded with gold. They told him it lay to the Southward. To the Southward he steered his course, and found the Island, which he called Hispanolia, no ways inferior to the reports; commodious harbours, an agreeable climate, a good soil, and, what was of most consequence, a country that promised, from some samples, a great abundance of gold: in-

inhabited by an humane and hospitable people, in a state of simplicity fit to be worked upon.

These circumstances determined Columbus to make this island the center of his designs, to plant a colony there, and to establish things in some permanent order before he proceeded to further discoveries. But to carry his designs of a settlement here, and his schemes of future discoveries into execution, it was necessary that he should return to Spain, and equip himself with a proper force. He had now collected a sufficient quantity of gold to give credit to his voyage at court, and such a number of curiosities of all kinds as might strike the imaginations, and engage the attention of the people. Before he parted, he took care to secure the friendship of the principal king of the island by caresses and presents, and under pretence of leaving him a force sufficient to assist him against his enemies, he laid the groundwork of a colony. He built a fort, and put a small garrison of Spaniards into it, with such directions for their conduct as might have ensured their safety, and the good offices of the inhabitants, if the men had not been of that kind, who are incapable of acting prudently either from their own or other peoples wisdom. He did every thing to gain the esteem of the natives, by the justice, and even generosity of his dealings, and politeness and humanity with which he behaved upon every occasion. He shewed them too, that though it was not in his will, it was not the less in his

power to do them mischief, if they acted so as to force him upon harsher measures. The surprizing effects of his cannon, and the sharpness of the Spanish swords, of which he made an innocent ostentation, convinced them of this.

When the Spaniards first arrived in that country, they were taken for men come from heaven; and it was no wonder, considering the extreme novelty of their appearance, and the prodigious superiority they had in every respect over a people in all the nakedness of uncultivated nature. Whatever therefore the Indians got from them, they valued in an high degree, not only as curious and useful, but even as things sacred. The persons of the Spaniards were respected in the same light. Columbus, who knew the value of opinion, did all he could to keep them in their error; and indeed no action of his, either of weakness or cruelty, could furnish matter to undeceive them. For which reason, on his departure, he left the people with the best inclinations imaginable to nurse his infant colony.

On his return homewards, he touched upon several islands to the Southward, and discovered the Caribbees, of the barbarity of whose inhabitants he had heard terrible accounts in Hispaniola. He had before landed upon Cuba in his passage from the Bahamas. So that, in this his first voyage, he gained a general knowledge of all the islands, which lie in such an astonishing number in that great sea which

divides North and South America. But hitherto he neither knew nor ſuſpected any continent between him and China.

On his return to Europe, after an abſence of above ſix months, he was driven by a great ſtorm into the harbour of Liſbon. This he did not look upon as a misfortune; ſince here, he had the ſatisfaction of convincing the Portugueſe of what an error they were guilty in rejecting his propoſals. It was now his turn to triumph. The Portugueſe, who had began to make a figure in navigation, conſidered diſcovery as their proper province; and they were enraged to ſee, that the Caſtilians were now let into the ſame path, in conſequence of an offer which they had rejected. Some propoſed to murder the admiral; but all were agreed to treat him in the moſt unworthy manner. However, their deſign of inſulting him gave Columbus an opportunity at once of gratifying his reſentment, maintaining his own dignity, and aſſerting the honour of the flag of Caſtile. He ſent to the king at his firſt entering the harbour, to deſire liberty to come up to Liſbon and refreſh, as he had his maſter's orders not avoid his ports; adding, that he was not from Guinea, but the Indies. An officer of the king of Portugal came aboard him with an armed force, and ordered him to come aſhore, and give an account of himſelf to the king's officers. Columbus told him he had the honour of ſerving the king of Caſtile, and would own himſelf accountable to no other. The Portugueſe then deſired him to ſend the

master of his ship; this he likewise refused, saying, that the admirals of Castile always chose rather to die than deliver up themselves, or even the meanest of their men, and if violence was intended, he was prepared to meet force with force. A spirited behaviour, in almost any circumstance of strength, is the most politic as well as the most honourable course; we preserve a respect at least by it, and with that we generally preserve every thing; but when we lose respect, every thing is lost. We invite rather than suffer insults, and the first is the only one we can resist with prudence. Columbus found this; the officer did not pursue his demand; the admiral had all the refreshments he wanted, and was even received at court with particular marks of distinction.

He proceeded from Lisbon to Seville; the court was then at Barcelona. But before he went to give an account of his voyage, he took all the care he could to provide for another. He wrote an abstract of his proceedings, and sent with it a memorial of all such things, as were necessary for the establishment of a colony, and for further discoveries. Soon after he began his journey to Barcelona, every where followed by the admiration and applauses of the people, who crouded to see him from all parts. He entered the city in a sort of triumph. And certainly there never was a more innocent triumph, nor one that formed a more new and pleasing spectacle. He had not destroyed, but discovered nations. The Americans he brought

with

with him appeared in all the uncouth finery of their own country, wondered at by every body, and themselves admiring every thing they saw. The several animals, many highly beautiful, and all strangers to this part of the world, were so disposed as to be seen without difficulty; the other curiosities of the new world were displayed in the most advantageous manner; the utensils, the arms, and the ornaments of the people so remote from us in situation and manners; some valuable for the materials; even the rudeness of the workmanship in many made them but the more curious, when it was considered by whom, and with what instruments they were wrought. The gold was not forgotten.

The admiral himself, who closed the procession, was received by the king and queen with all imaginable marks of esteem and regard, and they ordered a magnificent throne to be erected in public to do him the greater honour. A chair was prepared for him, in which he sat, and gave, in presence of the whole court, a full and circumstancial account of all his discoveries, with that composedness and gravity, which is so extremely agreeable to the Spanish humour, and with the modesty of a man who knows he has done things which do not need to be proclaimed by himself. The successful merit of Columbus was understood by every body; and when the king and queen led the way, all the grandees and nobility of the court vied with each other in their civilities and compliments.

The second Voyage of COLUMBUS.

DESIGNS like those of Columbus were not to be sacrificed to the glare of pomp and parade: his mind was bent on nobler pursuits; and, instead of being satisfied with the success that had hitherto accompanied his undertaking, he prepared with all expedition for a second voyage. The difficulties attending the first were all vanished. The importance of the object appeared every day more clearly, and the court was willing to second the vivacity of his desires to the full. He was made governor with the highest authority, and had a fleet of seventeen sail of ships, with all manner of necessaries for settlement or conquest, and fifteen hundred men on board, some of them of the best families in Spain. With this fleet he set sail on his second voyage the 25th of September, 1493. He gave each of the captains instructions for their course sealed, with orders not to open them, unless in distress, and separated from the fleet, that he might create such an absolute dependence of all upon himself, as should preserve an uniformity in their designs.

On the 2d of November they made land, which is the island now called Dominica. But his design was first to settle his colony before he attempted any new discovery, therefore he made no stay here, nor at several other islands at which he touched before he could make Hispaniola. On his arrival he found the

fort

fort he had built utterly demolished, and all his men killed. The Spaniards had first fallen out among themselves, upon the usual subjects of strife, women and gold; and afterwards preserving as little harmony with the natives, and observing no decency in their behaviour, or justice in their dealings, they quickly lost their esteem, and were every man murdered, after having been dispersed into different parts of the island. The prince, whom they were left to defend, was himself wounded in their defence, and bore this mark of his affection and good faith, when Columbus returned to the island.

The admiral very wisely forbore to make any nice enquiry into the affair, or to commence hostilities in revenge for the loss of his soldiers; but he took the most effectual measures to prevent such an evil for the future; he chose a more commodious station for his colony, on the North-east part of the island, which had a good port, great conveniency of water, and a good soil, and lay near that where he was informed the richest mines of the country were found: in gratitude to his royal patroness, he called it Isabella. He engaged in the settlement with great warmth, and never allowed himself a moment's repose from superintending the fortifications, the private houses, and the works of agriculture; in all which the fatigue was infinite; for he had not only the natural difficulties attending all such undertakings, but he had the insuperable laziness of the Spaniards to

contend

contend with. So that, ſpent with the fatigues of ſo long a voyage, and the greater fatigues he had endured ſince he came on ſhore, he fell into a dangerous illneſs. Of this accident ſeveral of his men took the advantage to begin a rebellion, to undo all he had done, and to throw every thing into the moſt terrible confuſion. Theſe people, on their leaving Spain, had fancied to themſelves that gold was to be found every where in this country, and that there required nothing further to make ample eſtates, than to be tranſported into it; but finding their miſtake, and that, inſtead of receiving theſe golden ſhowers without any pains, they fared ill, laboured hard, and that their proſpects of a fortune, if any at all, were remote and uncertain, their diſcontent became general; and the mutinous diſpoſition increaſed ſo faſt, and was carried to ſuch extremities, that if the admiral had not recovered at a very critical time, and on his recovery had not acted in the moſt reſolute and effectual manner, all his hopes of a ſettlement in Hiſpaniola had been at an end. He was however ſatisfied with impriſoning ſome of the chiefs, as this was neither a time nor a place for very extenſive or rigorous juſtice.

He quelled this ſedition; but he ſaw at the ſame time that this work was not yet done: he ſaw another danger, againſt which he was to provide with equal diligence. He had good reaſons to apprehend, that the Americans were not well affected to their new gueſts, and might probably meditate to cut them off, whilſt they

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saw them divided among themselves. To prevent this, as well as to banish idleness from amongst his men, and to revive military discipline, he marched into the heart of the country, through the most frequented parts of it, in order of battle, colours flying, and trumpets sounding, with the flower of his troops, to the mountains of Cibao, where lay the richest mines then discovered in the island. Here he built a fort to secure this advantageous post, and overawe the country; and then he returned in the same pomp and order, to the inexpressible terror of the inhabitants, who had now no prospect of withstanding so formidable a force.

Columbus made great ostentation of his cavalry in this expedition. This was the first time the Indians of America had ever seen horses. Their dread of these animals and their riders were extreme; they thought both formed but one animal, and the impetuosity of their charge appeared irresistible to these naked and ill-armed people. Wherever they appeared, those Indians, who intended any hostility, immediately fled; nor did they think the intervention of the deepest and most rapid rivers any security; they believed that the horses could fly, and that nothing was impossible to creatures so extraordinary. But Columbus did not rely upon these prejudices, though he made all imaginable use of them; knowing that those things which appear most terrible at first, become every day less affecting by use, and that they even grow contemptible, when their real

power

power is once well known. For which reaſon, he neglected none of his former methods of cultivating the affections of the natives: he ſtill ſhewed them all manner of reſpect, and when he had taken two perſons of their nation, who had committed ſome acts of hoſtility, and was at the point of putting them to death, he pardoned and ſet them free at the interceſſion of a prince of the country, with whom he was in alliance. On the other hand, he ſaw how neceſſary it was to preſerve a ſtrict diſcipline amongſt the Spaniards, to keep them from that idleneſs to which they had ſuch a propenſity, and which naturally retarded the growth of the colony, at the ſame time that it nouriſhed diſcontent and ſedition. He employed them in cutting roads through the country, a work which the natives never attempted themſelves, nor now endeavoured to oppoſe, though it be one of the beſt inſtruments of enſlaving any barbarous people. This wiſe governor obſerved beſides, that the Spaniards conformed with great difficulty to the Indian manner of living, to which, however, they were neceſſitated, but from which, for want of uſe, they ſuffered great hardſhips. To remedy this evil, he daily ſent out ſmall parties upon expeditions into the country; from which he derived two material advantages. Firſt, he enured, by degrees, all his people to the manner of living in the country; and ſecondly, he taught them to know it perfectly, leſt a war ſhould find them unprovided in their only point in which the Indians were their

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ſuperiors, and a point which in a woody and mountainous country is certainly of the greateſt importance.

All this he did without any material hazard to the ſum of his affairs. At home, he endeavoured to withdraw the Spaniards from their romantic hopes of miraculous treaſures, and to fix them to a rational and induſtrious courſe of life. He repreſented to them, that there was no real wealth but what aroſe from labour; and that a garden, a corn ground, and a mill, where riches more to their preſent purpoſe, than all the gold they were in expectation of meeting in the Indies. In ſhort, he laboured for the eſtabliſhment of this colony with as much aſſiduity, as though his views had extended no further; at the ſame time that he meditated the greateſt diſcoveries, and conſidered thoſe things which had aſtoniſhed the world, only as the earneſt of what was to follow.

His colony having now taken firm root in the Indies, he began to turn his attention to Cuba, which ſeemed to him a rich diſcovery; but whether it was an Iſland, or a part of ſome great continent, he was ſtill in doubt of. He prepared with all expedition to aſcertain this point, and to puſh his diſcoveries to the utmoſt; but this voyage was more remarkable for the hardſhips which the admiral and his men ſuffered, than for any conſiderable diſcoveries it produced. As he endeavoured to coaſt along the Southern ſhore of Cuba, he was entangled in a labyrinth of an innumerable multi-

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tude of islands, amongst which he reckoned 160 in one day. They were most of them pleasant and well inhabited, affording our navigator an agreeable meditation on this fertility of nature, where the world looked for nothing but a barren ocean. These islands, Columbus, who had a grateful mind, in which the memory of his benefactress was always uppermost, called Jardin de la Reyna, or the queen's garden, in honour of queen Isabella. But their number and fertility made little amends for the obstruction they gave Columbus in the course of his navigation. The coast absolutely unknown, among so many rocks, sands, and shelves; the sudden and violent storms, the tornadoes, and the terrible thunder and lightning so constant between the tropics, obliged him to keep a continual watch, and held his mind upon a constant stretch; the voyage was extended to an unprofitable length by these difficulties; and being driven out to sea, the worst disaster of all befel them: their provisions fell short. In this extremity they were obliged to come to a very narrow and bad allowance, in the distribution of which the admiral fared nothing better than the rest.

In this unremitted fatigue of body and of mind, in famine and in danger, his usual firmness began nearly to forsake him; but it could go no further than to oblige him to remark in his journal, that no interest of his own should ever oblige him to engage again in such an enterprise. They were at last relieved by the appearance of Jamaica, where they were hospi-

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tably received, and supplied with Cassava bread and water. From thence they proceeded, mortified and disappointed, to Hispaniola, not being able to come to any certainty concerning Cuba, other than what they understood from some of the inhabitants, that it was an island. This disappointment, and the infinite fatigue and difficulty of the voyage, threw Columbus into a lethargy, which was near being fatal to him, and of which he was scarcely recovered when they arrived at the harbour of Isabella, where they found all things in confusion, and the colony in the utmost danger of being a second time utterly destroyed; as if its prosperity or destruction depended upon the presence or absence of Columbus. For no sooner was he sailed, than the Spaniards, who were very difficultly retained in their duty by all his steadiness and wisdom, broke through all regulations, laughed at government and discipline, and spread themselves over the island, committing a thousand disorders, and living at free quarter upon the inhabitants, whose hatred to them was worked up to such a point, that they wanted only the word from their princes to fall on and massacre the whole colony, which was by no means impracticable, in its present disorder. Four of the principal sovereigns of the island took advantage of this disposition, and united to drive out those imperious intruders. None adhered to them but one called Gunacagarry, the same prince whom Columbus from the first had taken so much pains to oblige. In his dominions some of the Spaniards

found protection. The other princes had already commenced hoſtilities, and one of them killed ſixteen of the Spaniaids, who were taking no uniform meaſures to oppoſe them; neither in their preſent anarchy could it be well expected.

In this ſtate of confuſion was the iſland on the arrival of Columbus, whoſe firſt buſineſs was to collect the ſcattered fragments of the colony; and to form them into a body. This he was the better able to accompliſh, becauſe the preſent danger added a weight to his authority; but it was neceſſary that he ſhould loſe no time. He was reſolved to act with what force he had, rather than wait until the union of the iſlanders might be better cemented againſt him, and they might find ſome leſſer matters in their favour to raiſe their courage, and abate their terror of the Spaniſh arms. He therefore firſt marched againſt the king, who had killed the ſixteen Spaniards, as it was an enterpriſe coloured with an appearance of juſtice, and becauſe that prince happened to be the worſt prepared to receive him. He was eaſily ſubdued, and ſeveral of his ſubjects ſent priſoners into Spain.

The ſecond whom Columbus deſigned to attack being better prepared againſt force, he was reſolved to circumvent him by fraud, and got him into his power by a ſtratagem, which did no honour to his ſincerity, and rather ſhewed great weakneſs in this unfortunate barbarian, than any extraordinary contrivance in thoſe who deceived him. The other princes

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were not terrified at these examples. Their hatred to the Spaniards increased; and perceiving that all depended upon a sudden and vigorous exertion of their strength, they brought an immense army into the field, arrayed in the largest plain in that country. Columbus, though he had but a small force, did not scruple to go out to meet them. His army consisted but of two hundred foot, twenty horse, and twenty wolf dogs. The latter part of this army had a very ludicrous appearance; but it was a very serious matter amongst a people no better provided with arms offensive or defensive than the Indians. Neither was it rash in Columbus to venture an engagement against forces so vastly superior in numbers, for when such numbers are no better skilled or armed than these were, their multitude is in fact no just cause of dread but to themselves. The event was answerable; the victory was decisive for the Spaniards, in which their horses and dogs had a considerable share; the loss on the side of the Indians was very great. From that day forward they despaired, and relinquished all thoughts of dislodging the Spaniards by force. Columbus had but little difficulty in reducing the whole island, which now became a province of Spain, had a tribute imposed, and forts built in several parts to enforce the levying of it, and to take away from this unhappy people all prospect of liberty in future.

At this period, America was without almost any of those animals by which we profit so

greatly. It had neither horſes, nor oxen, nor ſheep, nor ſwine. Columbus brought eight ſows into America, and a ſmall number of horned cattle. This was the ſtock which ſupplied, about two hundred years ago, a country now the moſt abounding in theſe animals of any part of the known world; in which too it has been a buſineſs, for this century paſt, to hunt oxen merely for their hides. An example which ſhews how ſmall a number might originally have ſerved to produce all the animals upon earth.

Such are the narrow views of invidious and ſelf-intereſted minds, that whilſt Columbus was reducing this wealthy iſland to the obedience of the crown of Caſtile, and laying the foundations of the Spaniſh grandeur in America, his enemies were endeavouring, with pains as indefatigable, to ruin him in Spain. Some of the perſons principally concerned in the late diſorders, fled to Spain before his return; and there, to juſtify their own conduct, and gratify their malice, they accuſed him of neglecting the colony, and of having deceived their majeſties and the adventurers with falſe hopes of gold, from a country which produced very little either of that metal, or any thing elſe that was valuable.

Theſe complaints were not without effect; and an officer, fitter by his character for a ſpy and informer, than a redreſſer of grievances, was ſent to inſpect into his conduct; in which manner of proceeding there was certainly a policy as erroneous, as it was unjuſt

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and ungrateful. At that distance from the fountain of authority, with an enemy at the door, and a mutinous household, a commander ought always to be trusted or removed. This man behaved in a brutish and insolent manner, like all such persons, who, unconscious of any merit of their own, are puffed up with any little portion of delegated power. Columbus found that he staid here to no purpose under such disgraceful terms, and that his presence at court was absolutely necessary to his support. He determined to return once more to Spain, convinced that a long absence is mortal to one's interest at court, and that importunity and attendance often plead better than the most solid services. However, before he departed, he exerted the little remains of authority he had left, to settle every thing in such a manner, as to prevent those disorders which hitherto he had always found the certain consequence of his absence. He built forts in all the material parts of the island, to retain the inhabitants in their subjection. He established the civil government upon a better footing, and redoubled his diligence for the discovery of mines, which were to be the great agents in his affairs, nor did he altogether fail of success; but it was the fate of this great man to have his virtue continually exercised with troubles and distress.

He continued his course to Spain, in the latitude of twenty-two, not having at that time discovered the advantageous method of running into the Northern latitudes to meet

the South-weſt winds: they therefore made very little way; a ſcarcity enſued, in which they were reduced to ſix ounces of proviſion a day for each perſon. On theſe occaſions the admiral fared no better than the common ſailor; yet in this diſtreſs his hunger did not get the better of the tenderneſs and humanity which diſtinguiſhed his character. He refuſed to liſten to the preſſing inſtances of his crew, who were very earneſt in this diſtreſs to have the Indian priſoners thrown overboard to leſſen the conſumption of proviſions.

In this voyage his ſkill was as remarkable as his magnanimity. He had nine experienced pilots in his fleet; yet none of them could tell where they were, after having been a full month from the ſight of the firſt land. This length of time perſuaded them they muſt be very near Europe, and they were therefore for crouding ſail to make land as ſoon as poſſible. But Columbus, upon ſure obſervations, maintained they were but a little to the Weſtward of the Azores, and therefore ordered his ſails to be ſlackened for fear of land. His prediction was fulfilled, and the Azors relieved them next morning. This, added to a ſeries of predictions and noble diſcoveries, made his ſkill ſeem ſomething prophetic, and exalted his character in this reſpect above all the ſeamen before his time.

Every accuſation and prejudice againſt the admiral vaniſhed almoſt as ſoon as he appeared. He brought ſuch teſtimonies of his fidelity and good behaviour, as ſilenced all calumnies

which

which arose on that head; and the large specimens of gold and pearl he produced, refuted all that was said on the poverty of the Indies. The court was fully convinced of the importance of the new colony, the merit of its governor, and the necessity of a speedy supply. But the admiral's enemies were not idle, though they were silenced; they continued to throw all manner of obstructions in his way, which was a thing not difficult in a country, where every thing is executed with much langour, and where those forms and mechanical methods of business, necessary perhaps in the common course of affairs, but ruinous in great designs, are more exactly observed, than any where else. It was therefore with great difficulty that he was able to procure any relief to be sent to Hispaniola, but with much greater, and after a thousand delays and disappointments, that he was himself enabled to set out on a discovery of more importance than any of the preceding.

The Third Voyage of COLUMBUS.

IN the course of this third voyage, it was the intention of Columbus to stand to the Southward from the Canaries, until he should come under the equinoctial line, and then to proceed directly Westward, until Hispaniola should bear to the North-west from him, to try what opening that might afford to India, or what new islands or what continent might reward

reward his trouble. He therefore ſtood away to the Cape de Verd iſlands, and then South-weſt. In this navigation a thick fog, which intercepted the light of the ſun and ſtars, enveloped them for ſeveral days; and when this cleared off, the heats were grown ſo exceſſive, that the men could not venture between decks. The ſun being at this time nearly vertical, the heavy rains which fall at this ſeaſon between the tropics, without abating the heat, added much to their diſtreſs. At laſt a ſmart gale ſprang up, and they went before it ſeventeen days to the Weſtward. The admiral, who could have no ſecond to ſupply his place, ſcarce allowed himſelf a moment's ſleep; but in this, as in all his voyages, had the whole burthen of every thing upon himſelf; this fatigue threw him into a fit of the gout; but neither the fatigue nor the diſorder could remove him from the deck, or make him abate of his uſual vigilance. His proviſions, however, being damaged by the heat, the wine caſks many of them burſt, and the wine being ſoured in thoſe that held, obliged him to alter the courſe he intended to keep Southward, and to decline ſome points to the North-weſt, hoping to fall in with ſome of the Caribbees, where he intended to refit and take in proviſions, to enable him to continue his diſcoveries. But he had not ſailed long, when from the round top a ſeaman ſaw land, which was an iſland on the coaſt of Guiana, now called Trinidad.

Having

Having paſſed this iſland, and two others, which lie in the mouth of the great river Oronoquo, he was ſurprized and endangered by a phænomenon he had never ſeen before. The river Oronoquo, at all times very great, at this time augmented tenfold by the rains we have juſt mentioned, ruſhing into the ocean with an immenſe and rapid flood, meets the tide, which riſes here to a great height, and comes in with much ſtrength; and both being pent up between the iſlands, and reverberated from one to another, cauſed a conflict extremely terrifying to thoſe who had not been accuſtomed to it, and were ignorant of the cauſe, as Columbus was at this time. But ſailing further, he found plainly that he was in freſh water, and judging rightly, that it was probable no iſland could ſupply ſo vaſt a river, he began to ſuſpect he had diſcovered the continent. But when he left the river, and found that land continued on to the Weſtward for a great way, he was convinced of it. Satisfied in ſome meaſure with this diſcovery, he yielded to the uneaſineſs and diſtreſſes of his crew, and bore away for Hiſpaniola, favoured by a fair wind and thoſe currents which ſet ſtrongly to the Weſtward all along the Northern coaſt of South America.

The admiral landed in ſeveral places, and traded with the inhabitants, amongſt whom he found gold and pearl in tolerable plenty. Contrary to the cuſtom of many navigators, who behave wherever they go as if they never intended to come there again, he every where

uſed

used the natives with great civility, and gave them what they judged the full value of their commodities; little bells, bits of glass and of tin, with some trifling apparel, being exchanged for gold-dust and pearls, and much to the satisfaction of both parties, who indeed, with some reason, thought they had each overreached the other.

Columbus arrived at Hispaniola the 19th of August, 1498, quite worn down with sickness and continual watching, the necessity of which was rather increased than diminished as he came nearer home, among such a multitude of islands and shoals as filled those seas, at this time little known; add to this, that a current setting strongly Westward towards the continent, threatening every moment, without the greatest attention, to carry him out of his course. So wasted was he with the fatigue that his brother, whom he had left in his place, scarce knew him at his return. And he found that he was likely to have as little repose upon land as he had experienced upon the ocean.

The authority of the admiral had suffered some diminution, from the ill-judged step of sending a check upon his motions before he left Hispaniola; and the encouragement that gave to all sorts of murmurings and complaints against government, sowed the seed of a rebellion, which sprung up in the colony soon after he left it. But this rebellion was more dangerously formed than either of the former. For in the first place, the rebels had

regularly appointed themselves a chief, called Francis Roldan; a man whom the admiral had left in a considerable post: this gave it an uniformity and credit. And secondly, they gained the Indians to their party, by pretending to be their patrons, and the assertors of their liberty. Then, to establish themselves the more securely, they made a secession from the uncorrupted part of the colony, and settled in another part of the island, which formed an asylum for all idle and seditious persons, by whom they were continually reinforced. In this threatening state of things, the admiral having found his forces in no condition to act offensively against the rebels, did what he could to break their force, and dissolve that union which made them formidable. He began by publishing a free pardon for all that chose to cancel their crimes by a timely submission. Observing besides, that many were very desirous of returning to Spain, he gave them to understand they might go with the ships which brought the last succours.

He wrote to court a full account of his late discoveries, and sent samples of the wealth they yielded. He took the same opportunity of describing the distracted state of the colony, desiring that 50 or 60 men might be sent by every ship, which he promised to replace by as many of the rebels. He added very judiciously to his request, that some religious men and able lawyers might be sent him, as the most effectual means of introducing and preserving obedience and order. He then entered

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into negociations with the chiefs of the rebels; he granted them all they demanded, and even placed their principal commander, Roldan, in such an office as flattered his pride, though without augmenting his power. Thus things were brought into something of regularity, without any struggling or violence; and Roldan himself, though in his former office of chief judge of the island, contributed most of all towards bringing those who stood out to obedience. There arose a difference between them; and they flew again to arms; but on their first motion, Roldan, by virtue of his authority, seized, condemned, and executed several. By this the rest were awed, all the connexion broke off irretrievably, between the head and body of the rebels, and all done without having any part of the offence, that might be given by this severity, charged to Columbus.

The admiral now began just to breathe in a little tranquillity, acquired by the severest labours, whilst a new storm was gathering against him from the quarter of the court. His old implacable enemies, uniting with some of the rebels who had lately transported themselves into Spain, renewed the clamour against him. They heaped upon him all manner of calumnies; they accused him of a design of setting up for himself; and as they charged him in Hispaniola with cruelty and tyranny to the Indians, here they reversed the charge, and accused him of a popularity amongst that people, dangerous to his and

their

their alliance. They added to these, what could not fail to work on national prejudices, that Columbus was a stranger, and had not a proper respect for the Spanish nobility. They complained that great debts were due to them; that all ways of recovering them were shut up. In short, the king and queen never went abroad without being pursued and persecuted, by the clamours of these pretended suitors of justice.

Wearied out with such complaints, they sent a judge, with power to enquire into the admiral's conduct, and authorized, if he should find the accusations proved, to send him into Spain, and remain himself as governor in his room. The judge, who was extremely poor, and whose interest it was to condemn Columbus, no sooner landed in Hispaniola, than he took up his lodging in the admiral's house, for he was then absent. He next proceeded to seize upon all his effects; and at last summoned him and his brothers to appear. In the mean time, he encouraged all manner of accusations, without regarding the character of the accusers, or the probability or consistency of their accusations. In consequence of these, he apprehended the admiral and his brothers, and, with the last marks of insult and indignity, loaded them with irons, and embarked them to be transported prisoners into Europe. The captain of the vessel, touched with respect for the years and great merit of Columbus, offered to take off the irons; but he did not permit it. "Since "the king has commanded, that I should "obey his governor, he shall find me as obe-

" dient to this, as I have been to all his other
" orders. Nothing but his commands ſhall
" releaſe me. If twelve years hardſhip and
" fatigue; ſif continual dangers and fre-
" quent famine; if the ocean, firſt opened,
" and five times paſſed and repaſſed, to add a
" new world, abounding with wealth to the
" Spaniſh monarchy; and if an infirm pre-
" mature old age, brought on by thoſe ſer-
" vices, deſerve theſe chains as a reward, it
" is very fit I ſhould wear them to Spain, and
" keep them by me as memorials to the end
" of my life."

It is a juſt remark, that great minds, though more apt to forgive injuries, perhaps, than common ſouls, do not eaſily loſe the memory of the wrongs that are done them. Columbus afterwards carried theſe irons with him where-ever he went; they hung conſtantly in his chamber, and he ordered them to be buried with him.

With reſpect to the new governor, he made a more effectual proviſion for the reward of his ſervices; for, beſides confiſcating the greateſt part of the admiral's effects, which he converted to his own uſe, to flatter the people, he permitted an unbounded liberty, by which he ruined the royal revenue, and was near ruining the colony to, paſt all reparation, if the court had not recalled him in time, and ſent a perſon to ſucceed him of greater judgment and firmneſs, though of little more real virtue.

It

It may not here be amiss to make a short digression, to enquire into the spirit of discovery, which began to spread itself widely about this time, both in Spain and Portugal. Private adventurers, stimulated by the gold, which from time to time was remitted to Europe by Columbus, made equipments at their own expence. In one of these the famous Americus Vesputius commanded; he had got into his hands the charts of Columbus, in his last voyage, and he sailed the same course. But as he was a man of address and great confidence, and was besides an able seaman and good geographer, he found a way of arogating to himself the first discovery of the continent of America, and called it by his own name; which it has ever since retained, though no body has any doubt concerning the real discoverer. Pinzon, one who attended the admiral in his first voyage, equipped a squadron at his own expence; and was the first who crossed the line at the side of America, and entered the great river Maranon, or the river of Amazons. The Portuguese turned their thoughts to America, and discovered the Brazils, which make the most valuable part of their present possessions.

What animated these adventurers, at the same time that it fixes a stain upon all their characters and designs, is that unsatiable thirst of gold, which ever appeared uppermost in all their actions. This disposition hath been a thousand times extremely prejudicial to their affairs: it was particularly the cause

of all the confusion and rebellions in Hispaniola: yet it is certain, that if it were not for this incentive, which kindled the spirit of discovery and colonization first in Spain and Portugal, and afterwards in all parts of Europe, America had never been in the state it now is; nor would those nations ever have had the beneficial colonies, which are now established in every part of that country. It was necessary there should be something of an immediate and uncommon gain, fitted to strike the imaginations of men forcibly, to tempt them to such hazardous designs. To go out with a few baubles, and to return with a cargo of gold, is an object readily comprehended by any body, and was consequently pursued with vigour by all. The speculative knowlege of trade made no part of the study of the elevated or thinking part of mankind, at that time. Now, it may be justly reckoned amongst the liberal sciences; and it makes one of the most considerable branches of political knowledge.

Our colonies were settled without any view to those great advantages which we have drawn from them. Virginia was constructed out of the wrecks of an armament destined on a golden adventure, which first tempted us to America. And those who settled New England and Maryland, meant them only as asylums from religious persecution. So that if America had not promised such an inundation of treasure, it could only have supplied a languid commerce, which would have habituated the natives by degrees to our European manners,

manners, and supplied them with equal arms. Then it would have been next to impossible to have made those extensive settlements in that new world.

The Fourth and last Voyage of COLUMBUS.

COLUMBUS was no sooner arrived in Spain, in this disgraceful manner, than the court disavowed and highly blamed the conduct of their governor. And now, according to the giddy custom of men who act without plan or principle, they acquitted Columbus of all the charges against him, with as little enquiry into their validity, as they before used, when, upon the same charges, they unjustly condemned him. Restitution and reward were promised him, and he wanted very few incentives to engage once more in discoveries. His ambition was to arrive at the East Indies, and so to surround the globe. This had really an influence upon his own mind, and he knew nothing could so much influence those of the king and queen. On this prospect, he was again fitted out with a fleet, promising to reduce both East and West Indies, under the dominion of the court of Spain.

In May 1502, he embarked upon his fourth voyage. His design was to stand directly for the coast of South-America, and keep along the Northern shore until he should come to the place where he heard an obscure account of

some narrow strait (whether a strait or isthmus was not so clear from the accounts he had) and by this, if a strait, he hoped to pass into the great South-Sea. After so very long a voyage as this had been to America, and the discovery of a continent which was not that of India nor that of China, he saw clearly that the maps were no longer in the least to be relied on; he therefore depended solely upon his own ideas. He reviewed the bearings of all the countries which his former experience or his late discoveries had opened to him; he considered the figure of the earth in general; he reasoned upon the balance and distribution of the land and water; and comparing all these, he concluded, that, beyond the continent he had discovered was another ocean, probably as great or greater than that he had formerly passed; if this were so, then it was probable too that these oceans had some communication. He judged it to be near those places since called Veragua and Nombre de Dios; but not thinking his ships fit for that voyage, he proposed to put into Hispaniola to refit, and properly to prepare for so great an undertaking.

Whilst Columbus navigated and resided in the West-Indies, he was extremely diligent in his observations upon the nature of the air, the seasons, the meteors, rains and winds; and how each of these seemed to affect the others; nor was he less sagacious in drawing prognostics from the remarkable appearances in all; at this time he judged from observations that a great hurricane was approaching. Before he entered

entered the harbour, he notified his arrival to Obando the governor, with the nature of his design and the condition of his veſſels; deſiring at the ſame time that the fleet, which he underſtood to be on the point of ſetting ſail for Europe, ſhould in conſideration of the approaching hurricane defer their departure for ſome days. But it was his deſtiny that ingratitude ſhould purſue him every where, and perſecute him in every ſhape. For the governor, without any cauſe, not only refuſed to hearken to his advice about the ſailing of the ſhips, but abſolutely denied him permiſſion to enter into harbour, to ſave his life in that iſland which he himſelf had diſcovered and ſubdued. He had nothing to do but to draw up as cloſe to the ſhore as he could. The ſtorm came on the next night; but Providence favouring his innocence, and aſſiſting his capacity, brought him ſafe through it, though as terrible a ſtorm as had ever happened in thoſe ſeas. The fleet of twenty ſail, which againſt his advice had put to ſea, ſuffered the puniſhment due to their temerity. Only four eſcaped the ſtorm, ſixteen periſhed. Amongſt thoſe which were loſt, was the ſhip which carried back that governor to Spain, who had ſent Columbus thither in ſo oppreſſive and ſcandalous a manner; amongſt the four that were ſaved, was one that had on board ſome treaſure, all that could be reſcued from the pillage of the admiral's fortune. So that whilſt he was mortified at this ſhameful inſtance of human ingratitude, Heaven ſeemed to declare

declare in his favour, and to condemn and puniſh it. His character was highly raiſed by the prediction of the ſtorm, and by his behaviour in it; for to his, and his brother's good conduct, the ſafety of his little fleet was juſtly attributed. His brother was a navigator and philoſopher, ſecond only to the admiral, very uſeful to his affairs, and, by his capacity and the goodneſs of his heart, was a comfort and aſſiſtance in all his misfortunes.

Having weathered the ſtorm, he left this iſland, in which he had ſo ſurprizing an inſtance of ingratitude, in purſuit of more matter to employ it. In this voyage he diſcovered all the coaſt of Terra Firma to the Iſthmus of Darien, where he hoped to have found a paſſage to the South-Sea. In this he was diſappointed, but he was not diſappointed in the other part of his project; for every where as he advanced, he became more ſenſible of the value of his diſcoveries on the continent. He found a people more civilized, and more abounding in gold than the iſlanders. He entered a harbour, which from its excellence he called Porto Bello, well known ſince as one of the greateſt openings by which the Spaniſh commerce is carried on between the two worlds. Here the admiral deſigned to eſtabliſh a colony, under the command of his brother, propoſing to return to Europe himſelf to obtain the requiſites for a complete ſettlement. But the avarice and inſolence of his men raiſed the country upon him, and obliged him to relinquiſh his deſign, without having an op-

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portunity of doing any thing more than shewing his judgment in the choice of the situation, and his own and brother's bravery in extricating their men from the calamities to which their folly had exposed them.

Being obliged to depart from hence, and finding his vessels in so bad a condition that it was by no means advisеable to proceed upon further discoveries, he quitted the continent, after having discovered the Eastern side of the Isthmus of Darien, and the whole shore as far as Gracios o' Dios in the gulph of Honduras. He then stood over to Hispaniola. His voyage was made under a thousand difficulties of the severest kind; the vessels so leaky, that the crew had not a moment's respite from the pump, and scarce any provision remaining to refresh them after their labours. To complete the sum of their calamities, a violent storm arose, in which the ships fell foul of one another. But though he providentially weathered this storm, it was now scarcely possible to keep his ship above water, and he was glad to make Jamaica, where he was a second time relieved from the greatest dangers and distresses. But a distress of almost as bad a nature exercised his patience and invention here.

His ships were absolutely unfit for service, beyond all possibility of being repaired; no means of getting new; the inhabitants suspicious, and the ill behaviour of his men gave daily occasion to increase those suspicions. In this distress, he prevailed upon some of the hardiest and most faithful of them to pass over

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in a canoe to Hiſpaniola, to repreſent his calamitous ſituation to the governor, and to beg veſſels to carry them off. Eight months did the admiral remain in this iſland, without the leaſt intelligence from his meſſengers, or aſſiſtance from the governor. The natives grew exaſperated at the delay of the Spaniards and the weight of ſubſiſting them, which was a heavy burthen on the poverty of the Indians. Proviſions therefore came in very ſparingly. Things even threatened to grow much worſe; for the ſeamen mutinied in great numbers. By this mutiny the admiral's authority and ſtrength was conſiderably weakened, whilſt the natives were exaſperated by the diſorders of the mutineers; but Columbus found means to recover his authority, at leaſt among the Indians. Knowing there would ſhortly be a viſible eclipſe of the moon, he ſummoned the principal perſons in the iſland; and by one who underſtood their language told them, that the God whom he ſerved, and who created and preſerves all things in Heaven and earth, provoked at their refuſing to ſupport his ſervants, intended a ſpeedy and ſevere judgment upon them, of which they ſhould ſhortly ſee manifeſt tokens in the Heavens, for that the moon would, on the night he marked, appear of a bloody hue, an emblem of the deſtruction that was preparing for them. His prediction, which was ridiculed for the time, when it came to be accompliſhed ſtruck the barbarians with great terror. They brought him plenty of proviſions; they fell at his feet, and beſought

ſought him in the moſt ſupplicating ſtile to depricate the evils which threatened them. He took their proviſions, comforted them, and charged them to attone for their paſt ſin by their future generoſity. He had a temporary relief by this ſtratagem, but he ſaw no proſpect of getting out of the Iſland, and purſuing thoſe great purpoſes to which he had devoted his life.

The mutiny of his men was in danger of growing general, when every thing ſeemed to be ſettled by the ſight of a ſhip in the harbour, ſent by Obando, the governor of Hiſpaniola. The governor reſolved not only to abandon, but to inſult this great man in his misfortunes. The captain of the veſſel was a mortal enemy to the admiral, and one of the perſons principally concerned in thoſe rebellions, which had formerly given him ſo much trouble. The deſign of this captain was only to be a witneſs of the diſtreſs of his affairs; for he came aſhore forbidding his crew all manner of communication with the admiral or his men; and after delivering to Columbus an empty letter of compliment, embarked without even flattering him with the leaſt hope of relief. Thus abandoned, his firmneſs and preſence of mind alone did not forſake him.

The arrival of this ſhip for a moment reconciled his men to obedience; but when they ſaw it depart, they were almoſt unanimouſly on the point of ſhaking off all authority, and abandoning themſelves to the moſt deſperate courſes. The admiral, without betraying the leaſt

leaſt ſign of diappointment or grief, told them in a chearful manner, that he had a promiſe of an immediate ſupply: that he did not depart in this ſhip, becauſe ſhe was too ſmall to carry off all the Spaniards who were with him; and that he was reſolved not to leave the iſland until every man of them might enjoy the ſame conveniency. The eaſy and compoſed air of the admiral himſelf, and the care he manifeſted for his people, ſuperior to his own preſervation, reconciled their minds, and made them attend their fate with patience. But he knew his delay might be very tedious in this iſland, and that as long as there remained a receptacle to which every ill humour among his men might gather, his affairs would grow worſe every day. He found thoſe that ſtill adhered to him firmly attached to his cauſe; he therefore came to a reſolution of taking vigorous meaſures with the reſt. He ſent his brother, a ſenſible and reſolute man, with a proper force, and well armed, to treat with them; and in caſe of obſtinacy to compel them to obedience. They met, and the captain of the mutineers, grown inſolent with a long courſe of licentiouſneſs and rapine, not only rejected the admiral's propoſal, but offered violence to his brother; who uſing this as a ſignal to his men, prepared for ſuch an accident, they fell upon the rebels with ſo much reſolution, that ten lay dead in a moment with their chief; diſordered by the unexpected attack, the reſt fled, and ſoon after were obliged to ſubmit. Thus the admiral pacified

every

every thing with equal spirit and address, sometimes giving way to the storm, and temporizing when he doubted his strength; but when he was assured of it, always employing it with resolution and effect; turning every incident, even the most unfavourable to his advantage; and watching every change of nature, and every motion of the human mind, to employ them in his purposes.

Columbus might have spent his whole life in this miserable exile, if a private man, moved with esteem for his merit, and compassion to his misfortunes, had not fitted out a ship to his relief. This brought him to Hispaniola. The governor, who refused to contribute any thing to his coming, when he came received him with that overacted complaisance and shew of friendship, which so often succeeds the greatest insolence in base minds, and which they practice with so little shame and remorse to the persons they have before loaded with the greatest injuries. The admiral bore this like every thing else; and, convinced that a dispute with a governor in his own jurisdiction would bring him little advantage or honour, hastened every thing for his departure to Spain, where he arrived after a voyage, in which he was tossed by most terrible storms, and sailed seven hundred leagues after he had lost his main-mast.

He was now grown old, and severely afflicted with the gout. The queen, his patroness, was dead; and the king, of a close and dissembling disposition, and a narrow

mind, was the only perſon he had to ſooth his misfortunes, or pay the reward which was due to his labours. But he received neither comfort nor reward. The performance of his contract was deferred upon frivolous pretences; and he employed the cloſe of his life, as he had done the active part of it, in a court ſolicitation: the moſt grievous of all employments to any man, the moſt hopeleſs to an old man. Vanquiſhed at laſt by years, fatigues, and diſappointments, he died with thoſe ſentiments of piety, which ſupported him through the misfortunes of his life, and added a finiſhing, which nothing elſe could give to his greatneſs of mind, and all thoſe other virtues which ſo ſingularly marked his conduct.

In the character of this great man we ſee many things truly aſtoniſhing. To the ideas of the moſt penetrating philoſopher, and a ſcheme built upon them worthy of a great king, he joined a conſtancy and patience which alone could carry it into execution, with the forune of a private man. Continual ſtorms at ſea, continual rebellions of a turbulent people on ſhore, vexations, diſappointments, and cabals at court, were his lot all his life; and theſe were the only reward of ſervices, which no favours could have rewarded ſufficiently. His magnanimity was proof againſt all theſe, and his genius ſurmounted all the difficulties they threw in his way, except that of his payment, the point in which ſuch men ever meet with the worſt ſucceſs, and urge with the

the leaſt ability. That ſurprizing art, poſſeſſed by ſo few, of making every accident an inſtrument in his deſigns; his nice adjuſtment of his behaviour to his circumſtances, temporizing, or acting vigorouſly as the occaſion required, and never letting the occaſion itſelf paſs by him; the happy talent of concealing and governing his own paſſions, and managing thoſe of others; all theſe conſpire to give us the higheſt idea of his capacity. And as for his virtues, his diſintereſted behaviour, his immoveable fidelity to the ungrateful crown he ſerved, the juſt policy of his dealing with the Indians, his caution againſt giving them any offence, and his tender behaviour to them when conquered, which merited him the glorious title of their father, together with his zeal to have them inſtructed in the truths of religion, raiſe him to the elevated rank of thoſe few men whom we ought to conſider as examples to mankind, and ornaments to human nature.

The cout of Spain, however, were ſo juſt to his memory, that they buried him magnificently in the cathedral of Sevile, and erected a tomb over him with this inſcription:

Columbus has given a new world to the kingdoms of Caſtile *and* Leon.

A few years afterwards, the Spaniards made a complete conqueſt of Mexico and Peru, and became poſſeſſed of invaluable poſſeſſions in South America. The cruelties and maſſacres they committed to obtain that end, are horrid to relate, and in ſome meaſure foreign to a

hiſtory confined to North America only. We may hereafter, perhaps, embrace an opportunity to treat the affairs of South America with more propriety than we can at preſent: but the hiſtory of the firſt diſcovery of this vaſt continent we conſidered here as indiſpenſably neceſſary.

The Perſons, Cuſtoms, and Manners, of the original Inhabitants of AMERICA.

WHEN the thirſt of gold carried the Europeans beyond the Atlantic, they found the inhabitants of the new world immerſed in what they conſidered as barbarity; but which, however, was a ſtate of honeſt independence and noble ſimplicity. Except the inhabitants of the great empires of Mexico and Peru, who, comparatively ſpeaking, were refined nations, the natives of America knew very little of the uſeful arts, and even agriculture was almoſt unknown, or at leaſt very ſparingly employed among them.

The Americans are tall, and ſtrait in their limbs beyond the proportion of moſt nations; their bodies are ſtrong; but of a ſpecies of ſtrength rather fitted to endure much hardſhip, than to continue long at any ſervile work, by which they are quickly conſumed. Their bodies and heads are flattiſh, the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce; their hair long, black, lank, and

and very ſtrong, but without beards. The colour of their ſkin is a reddiſh brown, admired amongſt them, and improved by the conſtant uſe of bear's fat and paint.

When the Europeans firſt came into America, they found the people quite naked, except thoſe parts, which it is common for the moſt uncultivated people to conceal. Since that time they have generally a courſe blanket to cover them, which they buy from us. The whole faſhion of their lives is of a piece; hardy, poor, and ſqualid; and their education from their infancy, is ſolely directed to fit their bodies for this mode of life, and to form their minds to inflict and to endure the greateſt evils. Their only occupations are hunting and war. Agriculture is left to the women, and merchandize they contemn.

When their hunting ſeaſon is paſt, which they go through with much patience, and in which they exert great ingenuity, they paſs the reſt of their time in an entire indolence. They ſleep half the day in their huts, they loiter and jeſt among their friends, and they obſerve no bounds or decency in their eating and drinking. Before we diſcovered them, they had no ſpirituous liquors; but now, the acquirement of theſe is what gives a ſpur to their induſtry, and enjoyment to their repoſe. This is the principle end they purſue in their treaties with us, and from this they ſuffer inexpreſſible calamities; for, having once begun to drink, they can preſerve no meaſures, but continue a ſucceſſion of drunkenneſs as

long as their means of procuring liquor laſts. In this condition they lie expoſed on the earth to all the inclemency of the ſeaſons, which waſtes them by a train of the moſt fatal diſorders; they periſh in rivers and marſhes; they tumble into the fire; they quarrel, and very frequently murder each other; and in ſhort, exceſs in drinking amongſt this uncivilized people, who have not art enough to guard againſt the conſequence of their vices, is a public calamity. The few amongſt them, who live free from this evil, enjoy the reward of their temperance in a robuſt and healthy old age.

The Indians are grave even to ſadneſs in their deportment upon any ſerious occaſion; obſervant of thoſe in company; reſpectful to the old; of a temper cool and deliberate: by which they are never in haſte to ſpeak before they have thought well upon the matter, and are ſure the perſon who ſpoke before them has finiſhed all he had to ſay. They have therefore the greateſt contempt for the vivacity of the Europeans, who interrupt each other, and frequently ſpeak all together. Nothing is more edifying than their behaviour in their public councils and aſſemblies. Every man there is heard in his turn, according as his years, his wiſdom, or his ſervices to his country have ranked him. Not a word, not a whiſper, not a murmur, is heard from the reſt while he ſpeaks. No indecent condemnation, no ill-timed applauſe. The younger ſort attend for their inſtruction. Here they learn the hiſtory of their nation; here they are inflamed

flamed with the ſongs of thoſe who celebrate the warlike actions of their anceſtors; and here they are taught what are the intereſts of their country, and how to purſue them.

There is no people amongſt whom the laws of hoſpitality are more ſacred, or executed with more generoſity and good will. Their houſes, their proviſion, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a gueſt. To thoſe of their own nation they are likewiſe very humane and beneficent. Has any one of them ſucceeded ill in his hunting? has his harveſt failed? or is his houſe burned? He feels no other effect of his misfortune, than that it gives him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his fellow citizens, who for that purpoſe have all things almoſt in common.

To the enemies of his country, or to thoſe who have privately offended, the American is implacable. He conceals his ſentiments, he appears reconciled, until by ſome treachery or ſurprize he has an opportunity of executing an horrible revenge. No length of time is ſufficient to allay his reſentment; no diſtance of place great enough to protect the object; he croſſes the ſteepeſt mountains, he pierces the moſt impracticable foreſts, and traverſes the moſt hideous bogs and deſerts for ſeveral hundreds of miles, bearing the inclemency of the ſeaſons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirſt, with patience and chearfulneſs, in hopes of ſurprizing his enemy, on whom he exerciſes the moſt

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ſhocking barbarities. To ſuch extremes do the Indians puſh their friendſhip or their enmity; and ſuch indeed in general is the character of all ſtrong and uncultivated minds. Notwithſtanding this ferocity, no people have their anger, or at leaſt the ſhew of their anger, more under their command.

From their infancy they are formed with care to endure ſcoffs, taunts, blows, and every ſort of inſult patiently, or at leaſt with a compoſed countenance. This is one of the principal objects of their education. They eſteem nothing ſo unworthy a man of ſenſe and conſtancy, as a peeviſh temper, and a proneneſs to a ſudden and raſh anger. And this ſo far has an affect, that quarrels happen as rarely amongſt them when they are not intoxicated in liquor, as does the chief cauſe of all quarrels, hot and abuſive language. But human nature is ſuch, that, as virtues may with proper management be engrafted upon almoſt all ſorts of vicious paſſions, ſo vices naturally grow out of the beſt diſpoſitions, and are the conſequence of thoſe regulations, that produce and ſtrengthen them. This is the reaſon that, when the paſſions of the Americans are rouſed, being ſhut up, as it were, and converging into a narrow point, they become more furious; they are dark, ſullen, treacherous, and not to be appeaſed ſuddenly.

The Americans have ſcarce any temples; for as they live by hunting, inhabit mean cottages, and are given to change their habitations, they are ſeldom very religious. Some

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appear to have very little idea of God; others entertain better notions, and hold the exiſtence of the Supreme Being, eternal and incorruptible, who has power over all. Satisfied with owning this, which is traditionary amongſt them, they give him no ſort of worſhip. There are indeed nations in America, who ſeem to pay ſome religious homage to the ſun and moon; and, as moſt of them have a notion of ſome inviſible beings, who continually intermeddle in their affairs, they diſcourſe much of dæmons, nymphs, fairies, or ſuch-like beings. They have ceremonies too, that ſeem to ſhew they had once a more regular form of religious worſhip; for they make a ſort of oblation of their firſt fruits, obſerve certain ceremonies at the full moon, and have in their feſtivals many things that very probably came from a religious origin, though they perform them as things handed down to them from their anceſtors, without knowing or enquiring about the reaſon. Though without religion, they are great obſervers of omens and dreams, and pryers into futurity with great eagerneſs; they abound in diviners, augurs, and magicians, whom they rely much upon in all affairs that concern them, whether of health, war, or hunting.

Their phyſic, which may rather be called magic, is entirely in the hands of the prieſts. Their phyſicians generally treat them, in whatever diſorder, in the ſame way. That is, they firſt encloſe them in a narrow cabbin, in the midſt of which is a ſtone red hot; on this

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they throw water, until the patient is well ſoaked with the warm vapour and his own ſweat; then they hurry him from the bagnio, and plunge him ſuddenly into the next river. This is repeated as often as they judge neceſſary; and by this method extraordinary cures are ſometimes performed. But it frequently happens too, that this rude method kills the patient in the very operation, eſpecially in the new diſorders brought to them from Europe; and it is partly owing to this manner of proceeding, that the ſmall-pox has proved ſo much more fatal to them than to us. It muſt not be denied that they have the uſe of ſome ſpecifics of wonderful efficacy; the power of which they however attribute to the magical ceremonies with which they are conſtantly adminiſtered. And it is remarkable, that purely by an application of herbs they frequently cure wounds, which with us refuſe to yield to the moſt ſkilful practitioner.

The darling paſſion of the Americans is liberty, and that in its fulleſt extent; nor is it the original natives only to whom this paſſion is confined: our colonies ſent thither ſeem to have imbided the ſame principles, if we may judge from the reſiſtance they now make to the acts of the Britiſh legiſlature.

To liberty the native Indians ſacrifice every thing. This is what makes a life of uncertainty and want ſupportable to them, and their education is directed in ſuch a manner as to cheriſh this diſpoſition to the utmoſt. They are indulged in all manner of liberty; they are never

never upon any account chaſtiſed with blows; they are rarely even chidden. Reaſon, they ſay, will guide their children when they come to the uſe of it; and before that time their faults cannot be very great: but blows might abate the free and martial ſpirit which makes the glory of their people, and might render the ſenſe of honour duller, by the habit of a ſlaviſh motive to action.

It may not be amiſs here to make a ſhort digreſſion juſt to obſerve, that though this mode of bringing up a young Indian in the wilds of America may be juſtifiable, fatal would be the conſequences, ſhould any Britiſh parent adopt ſuch a rule of conduct here, where innumerable temptations every day offer to allure the unwary youth into the paths of folly, diſſipation, and vice: temptations that are unknown in the tractleſs woods and foreſts of America, and the forerunner to thoſe crimes and irregularities, at the recital of which even thoſe we ſtigmatiſe with the name of bárbarians would bluſh.

To return to the native Indians: when they are grown up, they experience nothing like command, dependence, or ſubordination; even ſtrong perſuaſion is induſtriouſly forborn by thoſe who have influence amongſt them, as what may look too like command, and appear a ſort of violence offered to their will. On the ſame principle, they know no puniſhment but death. They lay no fines, becauſe they have no way of exacting them from freemen; and the death, which they ſometimes

ſometimes inflict, is rather a conſequence of a ſort of war declared againſt a public enemy, than an act of judicial power executed on a citizen or ſubject. This free diſpoſition is general; and, though ſome tribes are found in America with an head, whom we call a king, his power is rather perſuaſive than coercive, and he is reverenced as a father, more than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no priſons, no officers of juſtice. The other forms, which may be conſidered as a ſort of ariſtocracy, have no more power. This latter is the more common in North America.

In ſome tribes there are a kind of nobility, who, when they come to years of diſcretion, are entitled to a place and vote in the councils of their nation: the reſt are excluded. But amongſt the five nations, or Iroquois, the moſt celebrated commonwealth of Nort-America, and in ſome other nations, there is no other qualification abſolutely neceſſary for their head men, but age, with experience and ability in their affairs. However, there is generally in every tribe ſome particular ſtock which they reſpect, and who are conſidered in ſome ſort as their chiefs, unleſs they ſhew themſelves unworthy of that rank; as among the tribes themſelves there are ſome, who, on account of their number, or bravery, have a pre-eminence over the reſt; which, as it is not exacted with pride and inſolence, nor maintained by tyranny on one hand, ſo it is never diſputed on the other when it is ſupported by a juſt claim.

Theſe heads of tribes and families, with ſuch whoſe capacity has elevated them to the ſame degree of conſideration, compoſe their great council. They meet in a houſe, which they have in each of their towns for the purpoſe, upon every ſolemn occaſion, to receive ambaſſadors, to deliver them an anſwer, to ſing their traditionary war ſongs, or to commemorate their dead. Here they propoſe all ſuch matters concerning the ſtate, as have already been digeſted in the ſecret councils, at which none but the head men aſſiſt. Here it is that their orators are employed, and diſplay thoſe talents which diſtinguiſh them for eloquence and knowledge of public buſineſs; in both of which ſome of them are admirable. None elſe ſpeak in their public councils; theſe are their ambaſſadors, and theſe are the commiſſioners who are appointed to treat of peace or alliance with other nations. The chief ſkill of theſe orators conſiſts in giving an artful turn to affairs, and in expreſſing their thoughts in a bold figurative manner, much ſtronger than we could bear in this part of the world, and with geſtures equally violent, thoug adapted to the ideas they mean to convey.

They appoint a feaſt, whenever any buſineſs of conſequence is to be tranſacted, and of this feaſt almoſt the whole nation partakes. There are leſſer feaſts upon matters of leſs general concern, to which none are invited but they who are engaged in that particular buſineſs. At theſe feaſts it is againſt all rule

to leave any thing; ſo that if they cannot conſume all, what remains is thrown into the fire; for they look upon fire as a thing ſacred, and in all probability theſe feaſts were anciently ſacrifices. Before the entertainment is ready, the principal perſon begins a ſong, the ſubject of which is the fabulous or real hiſtory of their nation, the remarkable events which have happened, and whatever matters may make for their honour or inſtruction. The others ſing in their turn. They have dances too, with which they accompany their ſongs, chiefly of a martial kind; and no ſolemnity or public buſineſs is carried on without ſuch ſongs and dances.

Every thing is tranſacted amongſt them with much ceremony, which in a barbarous people is neceſſary; for nothing elſe could hinder all their affairs from going to confuſion; beſides that, the ceremonies contribute to fix all tranſactions the better in their memory; and to help their memory, they have bits of ſmall ſhells or beads of different colours, which have all a different meaning, according to their colour or arrangement.

At the end of every matter they diſcourſe upon, when they treat with a foreign ſtate, they deliver one of theſe belts. If they ſhould omit this ceremony, what they ſay paſſes for nothing. Theſe belts are carefully treaſured up in each town, and they ſerve for the public records of the nation; and to theſe they occaſionally have recourſe, when any conteſt happen between them and their neighbours.

Of late, as the matter of which theſe belts is made is grown ſcarce, they often give ſome ſkin in the place of the *wampum*, for ſo they call theſe beads in their language, and receive in return preſents of a more valuable nature; for neither will they conſider what our commiſſioners ſay to be of any weight, unleſs ſome preſent accompanies the matter in treaty.

The charge of the internal peace and order is likewiſe committed to the ſame council of their elders which regulates whatever regards the external policy of the ſtate. Their ſuits are few and quickly decided, having neither property nor art enough to render them perplexed or tedious. Criminal matters come before the ſame juriſdiction, when they are ſo flagrant as to become a national concern. In ordinary caſes, the crime is either revenged or compromiſed by the parties concerned. If a murder is committed, the family which has loſt a relation, prepares to retaliate on that of the offender. They often kill the murderer, and when this happens, the kindred of the laſt perſon ſlain look upon themſelves to be as much injured, and think themſelves as much juſtified in taking vengeance, as if the violence had not begun amongſt themſelves. But, in general, things are determined in a more amicable manner. The offender abſents himſelf; his friends ſend a compliment of condolance to thoſe of the party murdered; preſents are offered, which are rarely refuſed: the head of the family appears, who in a formal ſpeech

delivers the preſents, which conſiſt often of above ſixty articles, every one of which is given to cancel ſome part of the offence and to aſſuage the grief of the ſuffering party. With the firſt he ſays, "By this I remove the hatchet from the wound, and make it fall out of the hands of him that is prepared to revenge the injury:" with the ſecond, "I dry up the blood of that wound;" and ſo on, in apt figures, taking away one by one all the ill conſequences of the murder. As uſual, the whole ends in mutual feaſting, ſongs, and dances.

If the murder is committed by one of the ſame family, or cabbin, that cabbin has the full right of judgment, without appeal, within itſelf, either to puniſh the guilty with death or to pardon him, or to force him to give ſome recompence to the wife or children of the ſlain. All this while the ſupreme authority of the nation looks on unconcerned, and never rouſes its ſtrength, nor exerts the fulneſs of a power more revered than felt, but upon ſome ſignal occaſion. Then the power ſeems equal to the occaſion. Every one haſtens to execute the orders of their ſenate; nor ever was any inſtance of diſloyalty or rebellion known amongſt this people. Governed as they are by manners, not by laws; example, education, and the conſtant practice of their ceremonies, give them the moſt tender affection for their country, and inſpire them with a moſt religious regard for their conſtitution, and the cuſtoms of their anceſtors. Family

love

love, rare amongſt us, is a national virtue amongſt them, fit to vie with thoſe of fabulous antiquity.

We ſhall now proceed to relate their method of mourning for their dead, and the ceremonies obſerved in their marriages and divorces.

The loſs of any of their people, whether by a natural death, or by war, is lamented by the whole town he belongs to. In ſuch circumſtances no buſineſs is taken in hand, however important, nor any rejoicing permitted, however intereſting the occaſion, until all the pious ceremonies due to the dead are performed. Theſe are always diſcharged with the greateſt ſolemnity. The dead body is waſhed, anointed, and painted, ſo as in ſome meaſure to abate the horrors of death. Then the women lament the loſs with the moſt bitter cries, and the moſt hideous howling, intermixed with ſongs, which celebrate the great actions of the deceaſed, and thoſe of his anceſtors. The men mourn in a leſs extravagant manner. The whole village attends the body to the grave, which is interred, habited in their moſt ſumptuous ornaments. With the body of the deceaſed are placed his bow and arrows, with what he valued moſt in his life, and proviſions for the long journey he is to take: for they hold the immortality of the ſoul univerſally, but their idea is groſs. Feaſting attends this, as it does every ſolemnity.

After the funeral, they who are nearly allied to the deceaſed, conceal themſelves in

their huts for a conſiderable time, to indulge their grief. The compliments of condolance are never omitted, nor are preſents wanted upon this occaſion. After ſome time they reviſit the grave; they renew their ſorrow; they new clothe the remains of the body, and act over again the ſolemnities of the firſt funeral. But no inſtance of regard to their deceaſed friends are ſo ſtriking as what they call the *feaſt of the dead*, or the *feaſt of ſouls*.

The day of this ceremony is appointed in the council of their chiefs, who give orders for every thing which may enable them to celebrate it with pomp and magnificence. The riches of the nation are exhauſted on this occaſion, and all their ingenuity diſplayed. The neighbouring people are invited to partake of the feaſt, and to be witneſs of the ſolemnity. At this time, all who have died ſince the laſt ſolemn feaſt of that kind are taken out of their graves. Thoſe who have been interred at the greateſt diſtance from the villages are diligently ſought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcaſſes. It is not difficult to conceive the horror of this general diſ-interment. I cannot paint it in a more lively manner than it is done by Lafitau. "Without queſtion, (ſays he) the opening of theſe tombs diſplay one of the moſt ſtriking ſcenes that can be conceived; this humbling portrait of human miſery, in ſo many images of death, wherein ſhe ſeems to take a pleaſure to paint herſelf in a thouſand various ſhapes of horror, in the

ſeveral carcaſſes, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered; others have a ſort of parchment upon their bones; ſome look as if they were baked and then ſmoaked, without any appearance of decay; ſome are juſt turning towards the point of putrefaction; whilſt others are all ſwarming with worms, and form a ſcene too indelicate to be deſcribed. I know not which ought to ſtrike us moſt, the horror of ſo ſtriking a ſight, or the tender piety and affection of theſe poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing deſerves our admiration more, than that eager diligence and attention with which they diſcharge this melancholy duty of their tenderneſs; gathering up carefully even the ſmalleſt bones; handling the carcaſſes, diſguſtful as they are, with every thing lotheſome; cleanſing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their ſhoulders through tireſome journeys of ſeveral days, without being diſcouraged by their inſupportable ſtench, and without ſuffering any other emotions to ariſe, than thoſe of regret, for having loſt perſons who were ſo dear to them in their lives, and ſo lamented in their death."

This ſtrange feſtival is the moſt magnificent and ſolemn which they have: not only on account of the great concourſe of natives and ſtrangers, and of the pompous re-interment they give to their dead, whom they dreſs in the fineſt ſkins they can get, after having ex-

poſed

poſed them ſome time in this pomp, but for the games of all kinds which they celebrate upon the occaſion, in the ſpirit of thoſe which the ancient Greeks and Romans celebrated upon ſimilar occaſions. In this manner do they endeavour to ſooth the calamities of life, by the honours they pay their dead: honours, which are the moſt chearfully beſtowed, becauſe in his turn each man expects to receive them himſelf. Though amongſt theſe ſavage nations this cuſtom is impreſſed with ſtrong marks of the ferocity of their nature, an honour for the dead, a tender feeling of their abſence, and a revival of their memory, are ſome of the moſt excellent inſtruments for ſmoothing our rugged nature into humanity. In civilized nations ceremonies are leſs practiſed, becauſe other inſtruments for the ſame purpoſes are leſs wanted.

Though the women in America have generally the laborious part of the œconomy upon themſelves, yet they are far from being the ſlaves they appear, and are not at all ſubject to the great ſubordination in which they are placed in countries where they ſeem to be more reſpected. On the contrary, all the honours of the nation are on the ſide of the woman. They even hold their councils, and have their ſhare in all deliberations which concern the ſtate; nor are they found inferior to the part they act. Polygamy is practiſed by ſome nations, but it is not general. In moſt they content themſelves with one wife; but a divorce is admitted, and for the ſame cauſes that it was allowed

lowed among the Jews, Greks, and Romans. No nation of the Americans is without a regular marriage, in which there are many ceremonies; the principal of which is, the bride's preſenting the bridegroom with a plate of their corn. Incontinent before wedlock, after marriage the chaſtity of their women is remarkable. The puniſhment of the adultreſs, as well as that of the adulterer, is in the hands of the huſband himſelf; and it is often ſevere, as inflicted by one who is at once the party and the judge. Their marriages are not fruitful, ſeldom producing above two or three children; and hence perhaps we may account for the depopulation of America, ſince one war carries off more men than can be recruited in many years.

Let us now proceed to enquire into their manner of preparing for war, and the mode in which they carry it on. Indeed, almoſt the ſole occupation of the American Indian is war, or ſuch an exerciſe as qualifies him for it. His whole glory conſiſts in this; and no man is at all conſidered until he has increaſed the ſtrength of his country with a captive, or adorned his houſe with a ſcalp of one of its enemies. When the antients reſolve upon war, they do not always declare what nation it is they are determined to attack; that the enemy, upon whom they really intend to fall, may be off his guard. Nay, they even ſometimes let years paſs over without committing any act of hoſtility, that the vigilance

of

of all may be unbent by the long continuance of the watch, and the uncertainty of the danger.

In the mean time they are not idle at home. The principal captain ſummonſes the youth of the town to which he belongs; the war kettle is ſet on the fire; the war ſongs and dances commence; the hatchet is ſent to all the villages of the ſame nation, and to all its allies; the fire catches; the war ſongs are heard in all parts; and the moſt hideous howlings continue without intermiſſion day and night over the whole tract of country. The women add their cries to thoſe of the men, lamenting thoſe whom they have either loſt in war or by a natural death, and demanding their places to be ſupplied from their enemies

The fury of the nation being thus raiſed to the greateſt height, and all long to embrue their hands in blood, the war captain prepares the feaſt, which conſiſts of dogs fleſh. All that partake of this feaſt receive little billets, which are ſo many engagements which they take to be faithful to each other, and obedient to their commander. None are forced to the war; but when they have accepted this billet they are looked upon as inliſted, and it is then death to recede. All the warriors in this aſſembly have their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with daſhes and ſtreaks of vermillion, which give them a moſt horrid appearance. Their hair is dreſſed up in an odd manner, with feathers of various kinds. In this aſſembly, which is preparatory to their

military expedition, the chief begins the war ſong; which having continued for ſome time, he raiſes his voice to the higheſt pitch, and turning off ſuddenly to a ſort of prayer, addreſſes himſelf to the god of war, whom they call Areſkoni. "I invoke thee, (ſays he) to be favourable to my enterprize! I invoke thy care upon me and my family! I invoke ye likewiſe, all ye ſpirits and dæmons good and evil! All ye that are in the ſkies, or on the earth, or under the earth, to pour deſtruction upon our enemies, and to return me and my companions ſafely to our country." All the warriors join him in this prayer with ſhouts and acclamations. The captain renews his ſong, ſtrikes his club againſt the ſtakes of his cottage, and begins the war dance, accompanied with the ſhouts of all his companions, which continue as long as he dances.

On the day appointed for their departure, they take leave of their friends; they change their clothes, or whatever moveables they have, in token of mutual friendſhip; their wives and female relations go out before them, and attend at ſome diſtance from the town. The warriors march out all dreſt in their fineſt apparel and moſt ſhowy ornaments, regularly one after another, for they never march in rank. The chief walks ſlowly on before them, ſinging the death ſong, whilſt the reſt obſerve the moſt profound ſilence. When they come up to their women, they deliver up to them all their finery, put on their worſt clothes,

and

and then proceed as their commander thinks proper.

They ſeldom engage in a war upon motives common to Europeans. They have no other end but the glory of the victory, or the benefit of the ſlaves which it enables them to add to their nation, or ſacrifice to their brutal fury; and it is rare that they take any pains to give their wars even a colour of juſtice. They fall ſometimes on one nation, and ſometimes on another, and ſurprize ſome of their hunters, whom they ſcalp and bring home as priſoners. Their ſenators wink at this, or rather encourage it, as it tends to keep up the martial ſpirit of their people, enures them to watchfulneſs and hardſhip, and gives them an early taſte for blood. The qualities in an Indian war, are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a ſurprize, and patience and ſtrength, to endure the intolerable fatigues and hardſhips which always attend it.

The nations of America are at an immenſe diſtance from each other, with a vaſt deſart frontier, and hid in the boſom of hideous, and almoſt boundleſs foreſts. Theſe muſt be traverſed before they meet an enemy, who is often at ſuch a diſtance as might be ſuppoſed to prevent either quarrel or danger. But, notwithſtanding the ſecrecy of the deſtination of the party that firſt moves, the enemy has frequent notice of it, is prepared for the attack, and ready to take advantage in the ſame manner of the leaſt want of vigilance in the aggreſſors. Their whole art of war conſiſts in this:

this: they never fight in the open field, but upon ſome very extraordinary occaſions: not from cowardice, for they are brave, but they deſpiſe this method, as unworthy an able warrior, and as an affair in which Fortune governs more than prudence.

The principal things which help them to find out their enemies, are the ſmoke of their fires, which they ſmell at a diſtance almoſt incredible; and their tracks, in the diſcovery and diſtinguiſhing of which, they are poſſeſſed of a ſagacity equally aſtoniſhing; for they will tell in the footſteps, which to us would ſeem moſt confuſed, the number of men that have paſſed, and the length of time ſince they have paſſed.

As they who are attacked have the ſame knowledge, and know how to draw the ſame advantages from it, their great addreſs is to baffle each other in theſe points. On the expedition they light no fire to warm themſelves, or prepare their victuals, but ſubſiſt merely on the miſerable pittance of ſome of their meal mixed with water; they lie cloſe to the ground all day, and march only in night. As they march in their uſual order in files, he that cloſes the rear diligently covers his own tracks, and thoſe of all who preceded him with leaves. If any ſtream occurs in their route, they march in it for a conſiderable way to foil their purſuers. When they halt to reſt and refreſh themſelves, ſcouts are ſent out on every ſide to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place where they ſuſpect an enemy may lie concealed.

In this manner they often enter a village, whilſt the ſtrength of the nation is employed in hunting, and maſſacre all the helpleſs old men, women, and children, or make priſoners as many as they can manage, or have ſtrength enough to be uſeful to their nation. They often cut off ſmall parties of men in their huntings; but when they diſcover an army of their enemies, their way is to throw themſelves flat on their faces amongſt the withered leaves, the colour of which their bodies are painted to reſemble exactly. They generally let a part paſs unmoleſted, and then, riſing a little, they take aim, for they are excellent markſmen, and ſetting up a moſt tremendous ſhout, which they call the *war-cry*, they pour a ſtorm of muſquet-bullets upon the enemy; for they have long ſince laid aſide the uſe of arrows: the party attacked returns the ſame cry. Every man in haſte covers himſelf with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverſe party, as ſoon as they raiſe themſelves from the ground to give the ſecond diſcharge,

Having fought ſome time in this manner, the party which thinks it has the advantage, ruſhes out of its cover, with ſmall axes in their hands, which they dart with great addreſs and dexterity: they redouble their cries, intimidating their enemies with menaces, and encouraging each other with a boaſtful diſplay of their own brave actions. Thus, being come hand to hand, the conteſt is ſoon decided, and the conquerors ſatiate their ſavage fury with the moſt ſhocking inſults and barbarities

to

to the dead, biting their fleſh, tearing the ſcalp from their heads, and wallowing in their blood like the ſavage inhabitants of the woods.

Miſerable indeed is the fate of their priſoners. During the greateſt part of their journey homewards they ſuffer no injury; but when they arrive at the territories of the conquering ſtate, or at thoſe of their allies, the people from every village meet them, and think they ſhew their attachment to their friends by their barbarous treatment of the unhappy victims; ſo that, when they come to their ſtation, they are wounded and bruiſed in a terrible manner. The conquerors enter the town in triumph. The war-captain waits upon the head-men, and in a low voice gives them a circumſtantial account of every particular of the expidition, of the damage the enemy has ſuffered, and his own loſſes in it. This done, the public orator relates the whole to the people. Before they yield to the joy which the victory occaſions, they lament the friends which they have loſt in the purſuit of it. The parties moſt nearly concerned are afflicted apparently with a deep and real ſorrow. But, by one of thoſe ſtrange turns of the human mind, faſhioned to any thing by cuſtom, as if they were diſciplined in their grief, upon the ſignal for rejoicing, in a moment all tears are wiped from their eyes, and they ruſh into an extravagance and phrenzy of joy for their victory. All this time, the fate of the priſoners remains undecided, until the

old men meet, and determine concerning their diſtribution.

It is uſual to offer a ſlave to each houſe that has loſt a friend, giving the preference according to the greatneſs of the loſs. The perſon who has taken the captive attends him to the door of the cottage to which he is delivered, and with him gives a belt of wampum, to ſhew that he has fulfilled the purpoſe of the expedition, in ſupplying the loſs of a citizen. They view the preſent which is made them for ſome time; and, according as they think him or her, for it is the ſame, proper or improper for the buſineſs of the family, or as they take a capricious liking or diſpleaſure to the countenance of the victim, or in proportion to their natural barbarity or their reſentment for their loſſes, they deſtine concerning him, to receive him into the family, or ſentence him to death. If the latter, they throw away the belt with indignation. Then it is no longer in the power of any one to ſave him. The nation is aſſembled as upon ſome great ſolemnity, a ſcaffold is raiſed, and the priſoner tied to the ſtake. Inſtantly he opens his death ſong, and prepares for the enſuing ſcene of cruelty with the moſt undaunted courage. On the other ſide, they prepare to put it to the utmoſt proof, with every torment, which the mind of man ingenious in miſchief can invent.

They begin at the extremities of his body, and gradually approach the trunk. One plucks out his nails by the roots, one by one; ano-

ther

ther takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the fleſh with his teeth; a third thruſts the finger mangled as it is, into the bole of a pipe made red hot, which he ſmoaks like tobacco. Then they pound his toes and fingers to pieces between two ſtones; they cut circles about his joints, and gaſhes in the fleſhy parts of his limbs, which they ſear immediately with red hot irons, cutting and ſearing alternately; they pull off this fleſh thus mangled and roaſted, bit by bit, devouring it with greedineſs, and ſmearing their faces with the blood, in an enthuſiaſm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the fleſh, they twiſt the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and ſnapping them; whilſt others are employed in pulling and extending the limbs themſelves, in every way that can increaſe the torment.

This continues often five or ſix hours together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they ſhall inflict, and to refreſh the ſtrength of the ſufferer, who wearied out with ſuch a variety of unheard-of torments, often falls immediately into ſo profound a ſleep, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awaken him, and renew his ſufferings. He is again faſtened to the ſtake, and again they renew their cruelty; they ſtick him all over with ſmall matches of wood that eaſily takes fire, but burns ſlowly; they continually run ſharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thruſt

out his eyes; and laſtly, after having burned his fleſh from the bones with ſlow fires; after having ſo mangled the body, that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in ſuch a manner as to carry nothing human in it; after having peeled the ſkin from the head, and poured a heap of red hot coals or boiling water on the naked ſkull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind and ſtaggering with pain and weakneſs, aſſaulted and pelted upon every ſide with clubs and ſtones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every ſtep, runs hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compaſſion or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then put into the kettle, and this barbarous employment is ſucceeded by a feaſt equally inhuman.

On this occaſion, the women forgetting the female nature, and transformed into ſomething worſe than furies, act their parts, and even outdo the men in this ſcene of horror. The principle perſons of the country ſit round the ſtake ſmoaking, and looking on without the leaſt emotion. What is moſt extraordinary, the ſufferer himſelf, in the little intervals of his torments, ſmoaks too, appears unconcerned, and converſes with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there ſeems a conteſt between him and them which ſhall exceed, they in inflicting the moſt horrid pains, or he in enduring them with a firmneſs and conſtancy almoſt above human. Not a groan,

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not a ſigh, not a diſtortion of countenance eſcapes him; he poſſeſſes his mind entirely in the midſt of his torments; he recounts his own exploits, he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and though his reproaches exaſperate them to a perfect madneſs of rage and fury, he continues his reproaches even of their ignorance in the art of tormenting, pointing out himſelf more exquiſite methods, and more ſenſible parts of the body to be afflicted.

We do not dwell upon theſe circumſtances of cruelty, which ſo degrade human nature, out of choice; but, as all who mention the cuſtoms of this people have inſiſted upon their behaviour in this reſpect very particularly, and as it ſeems neceſſary to give a true idea of their character, we did not chuſe to omit it. It ſerves to ſhew too, in the ſtrongeſt light, to what an inconceivable degree of barbarity the paſſions of men let looſe will carry them. It will point out to us the advantages of a religion that teaches a compaſſion to our enemies, which is neither known nor practiſed in other religons; and it will make us more ſenſible, than ſome appear to be, of the value of commerce, the art of a civilized life, and the lights of literature; which, if they have abated the force of ſome of the natural virtues by the luxury which attends them, have taken out likewiſe the ſting of our natural vices, and ſoftened the ferocity of the human race without enervating

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their courage. On the other hand, the conſtancy of the ſufferers in this terrible ſcene, ſhews the wonderful power of an early inſtitution, and a ferocious thirſt of glory, which makes men imitate and exceed what philoſophy, or even religion can produce.

Happy are the priſoners who chance to pleaſe thoſe to whom they are offered, as they then have a fortune altogether oppoſite to that of thoſe who are condemned. They are adopted into the family, they are accepted into the place of the father, ſon, or huſband, that is loſt; and they have no other mark of their captivity, but that they are not ſuffered to return to their own nation. To attempt this would be certain death.

The principle purpoſe of the war is to recruit in this manner; for which reaſon a general, who looſes many of his men, though he ſhould conquer, is little better than diſgraced at home; becauſe the end of the war was not anſwered. They are therefore extremely careful of their men, and never chuſe to attack but with a very undoubted ſuperiority, either in number or ſituation. The ſcalps, which they value ſo much, are the trophies of their bravery; with theſe they adorn their houſes, which are eſteemed in proportion as this ſort of ſpoils is more numerous. They have ſolemn days appointed upon which the young men gain a new name or title of honour from their head-men; and theſe titles are given according to the qualities of the perſon, and his performances, of

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which theſe ſcalps are the evidence. This is all the reward they receive for the dangers of the war and the fatigues of many campaigns, were almoſt beyond credit. They think it abundantly ſufficient to have a name given by their governors, men of merit themſelves, and judges of it; a name reſpected by their countrymen, and terrible to their enemies.

There are many other things fit to engage the curioſity, and even afford matter of inſtructive reflection, in the manners of the native Indians; but we ſhall content ourſelves with having mentioned the moſt ſtriking, and fitteſt to be inſiſted on in a work which is to receive only eſſential matters. The geography of North-America, the deſcription of our ſettlements there, with an account of their commerce and productions, are the principal objects we have in view, and to theſe we ſhall particularly attend.

Geographical Deſcription of North America.

AMERICA conſiſts of two vaſt continents, ſeparated from each other by the Iſthmus of Darien, which lies between eight and ten degrees of north latitude, and between ſeventy-eight and eighty three degrees of weſt longitude.

It would be difficult to aſcertain the preciſe bounds of our empire in North America to the northern and weſtern ſides; for to the northward, we ſeem to have a right to extend

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our claims even to the Pole itſelf, nor does any nation appear inclined to diſpute the property of theſe northern regions with us. Were we to take our ſtand upon the northern extremity, and look towards the South, we ſhould have a teritory extending in that aſpect, from the Pole to Cape Florida, in the Gulf of Mexico, which comprehends near four thouſand miles in a direct line; and this extenſive territory is the more valuable, as it includes the moſt temperate climates of this new world, and ſuch as are beſt ſuited to Britiſh conſtitutions. To the weſtward, our boundaries reach to nations unknown, even to the native Indians of Canada.

This vaſt weſtern empire is all the way waſhed by the Atlantic Ocean on the eaſt, and by the Gulf of Mexico on the ſouth. Here we muſt obſerve, that America is undoubtedly the beſt watered of any part of the world; and that, not only for the ſupport of life, but for the convenience of trade, and the intercourſe of each part with the other. In North America, the great river Miſſiſippi, riſing from unknown ſources, runs an immenſe courſe from north to ſouth, and receives the vaſt tribute of the Ohio, the Oubache, and other extenſive rivers, navigable almoſt to their ſources, and laying open the inmoſt receſſes of this continent. Near the heads of theſe are five great lakes, or rather ſeas of freſh water, communicating with each other, and all with the main ocean, by the river of St. Laurence, which paſſes through them. Theſe afford ſuch an

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let for commerce as muſt produce the great- advantages, whenever the country adjacent all come to be fully inhabited, and by an in- ſtrious and civilized people. The eaſtern e of North America, beſides the noble ri- rs Hudſon, Delaware, Suſquehanna, Pa- wmach, ſupplies ſeveral others of great pth, length, and commodious navagation. any parts of our ſettlements are ſo interſect- with navigable rivers and creeks, that the nters may be ſaid, not without ſome degree propriety, to have each a harbour at his n door.

In South America are the greateſt moun- ns in the world; but we know of none con- erable in North America, but that long ge, which lies to the back of our ſettle- nts, and which we call the Apalachian, or legeney mountains; if that at all may be nſidered as a mountain, which upon one e indeed has a very great declivity, but on the other is nearly on a level with the t of the country.

Having now given a ſhort geographical de- iption of North America in general, it may perhaps, be amiſs, before we proceed, to ſcribe the colonies ſeparately, to ſay ſome- ng of their firſt eſtabliſhments, and to enu- rate a few of thoſe difficulties which attend- the undertaking.

Account

Account of the first Settlement of North America.

OUR claims to the ſettlements we poſſeſs in North America are derived from the diſcovery of Sebaſtian Cabot, who firſt made the northern continent in 1497. The fact is ſufficiently certain to eſtabliſh a right to our ſettlements in that part of the world; but the particulars are not known diſtinctly enough to encourage us to enter into a detail of his voyage. The country was in general called Newfoundland, a name which is now appropriated ſolely to an iſland upon its coaſt.

It was a long time before we made any attempt to ſettle this country; though in this point we were no more backward than our neighbours, who probably did not abſtain ſo long out of reſpect to our prior diſcovery. Sir Walter Raleigh ſhewed the way, by planting a colony in the Southern part, which he called Virgina. However, the ſpirit of colonization was not yet fully raiſed. Men lived at eaſe in their own country, and the new ſettlement of Virgina, though dreſſed up in all the ſhowy colours which eloquence could beſtow upon it, gave adventurers but little encouragement. The affairs of North America were in the hands of an excluſive company.

In this condition things remained, until the latter end of the reign of James the firſt.

From the commencement of the reformation in England, two parties of proteſtants ſubſiſted amongſt us; the firſt had choſen gradually and almoſt imperceptibly to recede from the church of Rome; ſoftening the lines rather than erafing the figure, they made but very little alteration in the appearances of things. And the people, ſeeing the exterior ſo little altered, hardly perceived the great changes they had made in the doctrines of their religion. The other party, of a warmer temper, had more zeal and leſs policy. Several of them had fled from the perſecution in queen Mary's days; and they returned in thoſe of queen Elizabeth with minds ſufficiently heated by reſentment of their ſufferings, and by the perpetual diſputations which had exerciſed them all the while they were abroad. Abroad they learned an averſion to the epiſcopal order, and to religious ceremonies of every ſort; they were impregnated with an high ſpirit of liberty, and had a ſtrong tendency to the republican form of government.

Queen Elizabeth had enough of the blood of Harry the eighth, to make her impatient of an oppoſition to her will, eſpecially in matters of religion, in which ſhe had an high opinion of her own knowledge. She adviſed with the party but very little in the alterations which ſhe thought proper to make; and, diſliking the notions which they ſeemed to entertain in politics, ſhe kept them down during the whole courſe of her reign with an uniform and inflexible ſeverity. However, the party was

far enough from being deſtroyed. The merit of their ſufferings, the affected plainneſs of their dreſs, the gravity of their deportment, the uſe of ſcripture phraſes upon the moſt ordinary occaſions, and even their names, which had ſomething ſtriking and venerable, as being borrowed from the Old Teſtament, or having a ſort of affected relation to religious matters, gained them a general eſteem amongſt ſober people of ordinary underſtandings. This party, which was called Puritans, was very numerous.

King James, when he came to the throne, had a very fair opportunity of pacifying matters; or at worſt he might have left them in the condition he found them; but it happened quite otherwiſe. The unkingly diſputation at Hampton-court did more to encourage the puritans to perſevere in their opinions, by the notice which was taken of them, than all king James's logic, as a ſcholar, backed with all his power as a king, could do to ſuppreſs that party. They were perſecuted, but not deſtroyed; they were exaſperated, and yet left powerful, and the government, as is too often the caſe, expoſed their weakneſs and ill intentions by a rigorous ſeverity.

Things continued in this ſtate until the acceſſion of Charles, when they were far from mending. This prince, endowed with many great virtues, had very few amiable qualities. As grave as the puritans themſelves, he could never engage the licentious part of the world in his favour; and that gravity being turned

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againſt the puritans, made him but the more odious to them. He gave himſelf up entirely to the church and churchmen; and he finiſhed his ill conduct in this reſpect, by conferring the firſt eccleſiaſtical dignity of the kingdom, and a great ſway in temporal affairs, upon doctor Laud. Hardly fit to direct a college, he was called to govern a kingdom. He was one of thoſe indiſcreet men of good intentions, who are the people in the world that make the worſt figure in politics. This man thought he did good ſervice to religion by a ſcrupulous enquiry into the manner in which the miniſters every where conformed to the regulations of the former reigns. He deprived great numbers for nonconformity. Not ſatisfied with this, in which perhaps he was juſtifiable enough if he had managed prudently, he made new regulations, and introduced on a people already abhorrent of the moſt neceſſary ceremonies of a new kind, of a moſt uſeleſs nature, and ſuch as were even ridiculous, if the ſerious conſequences which attended them may not intitle them to be conſidered as matters of much conſequence.

Theſe proceedings gave much diſguſt to many great men at court, who entertained very reaſonable apprehenſions for the public liberty, and who, to make themſelves popular, attached themſelves to the popular notions of religon, and affected to maintain them with great zeal. Others became puritans through principle. And now their affairs put on a reſpectable appearance; in proportion as

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they became of consequence, their sufferings seemed to be more and more grievous; the severeties of Laud raised not terror as formerly, but a sort of indignant hatred; and they became every day further and further from listening to the least terms of agreement with surplices, organs, common-prayer, or table at the east end of the church. As they who are serious about trifles are serious indeed, their livesbegan to grow miserable to sevral on account of these ceremonies; and, rather than be obliged to submit to them, the most dreary realms, and the most unfrequented regions, where they could enjoy a liberty of conscience, would have appeared to them superior to the most splendid palaces.

In the beginning of the reign of king James, a number of persons of this persuasion had fought refuge in Holland; in which, though a country of the greatest religious freedom in the world, they did not find themselves better satisfied than they had been in England. There they were tolerated indeed, but watched; their zeal began to have dangerous languors for want of opposition; and being without power or consequence, they grew tired of the indolent security of their sanctuary; they chose to remove to a place where they should see no superior; and therefore they sent an agent to England, who agreed with the council of Plymouth for a tract of land in America, within their jurisdiction, to settle in after they had obtained from the king a privilege to do so. The Plymouth

mouth council was a company, who by their charter, had not only all the coaſt of North America from Nova Scotia to the ſouthern parts of Carolina (the whole country being then diſtinguiſhed by the names of South and North Virgina) as a ſcene for their excluſive trade; but they had the entire property of the ſoil likewiſe. This colony eſtabliſhed itſelf at a place called New Plymouth. They were but few in number; they landed in a bad ſeaſon, and they were not at all ſupported but from their private funds. The winter was premature, and terribly cold. The countrry was all covered with wood, and afforded very little for the refreſhment of perſons ſickly with ſuch a voyage, or for ſuſtenance of an infant people. Near half of them periſhed by the ſcurvy, by want, and the ſeverity of the climate; but they who ſurvived, not diſpirited with their loſſes, nor with the hardſhips they were ſtill to endure, ſupported by the vigour which was then the character of Engliſhmen, and by the ſatisfaction of finding themſelves out of the reach of the ſpiritual arm, reduced this ſavage country to yield them a tolerable livelihood, and by degrees a comfortable ſubſiſtence. This little eſtabliſhment was made in the year 1621.

Several of their brethren in England, labouring under the ſame difficulties, took the ſame methods of eſcaping from them. The colony of puritans inſenſibly increaſed; but as yet they had not extended themſelves much beyond New-Plymouth. It was in the year

1629 that the colony began to flouriſh in ſuch a manner, that they ſoon became a conſiderable people. By the cloſe of the enſuing year they had built four towns, Salem, Dorcheſter, Charles-town, and Boſton, which has ſince become the capital of New England, and is at preſent conſidered by many people as the ſeat of anarchy and rebellion; but of this we ſhall ſpeak more particularly, when we come to deſcribe the riſe and progreſs of the preſent unhappy diſputes between the colonies and the mother country.

That enthuſiaſm which was reverſing every thing at home, and which is ſo dangerous in every ſettled community, proved of admirable ſervice here. It became a principle of life and vigour, that enabled them to conquer all the difficulties of a ſavage country. Their exact and ſober manners proved a ſubſtitute for a proper ſubordination and regular form of government.

Not only they who found themſelves uneaſy at home upon a religious account, but ſeveral by reaſon of the then profitable trade of furs and ſkins, and for the ſake of the fiſhery, were invited to ſettle in New England. But this colony received its principal aſſiſtance from the diſcontent of ſeveral great men of the puritan party, who were its protectors, and who entertained a deſign of ſettling amongſt them in New England, if they ſhould fail in the meaſures they were purſuing for eſtabliſhing the liberty, and reforming the religion of their

mother

mother country. They solicited grants in New England, and were at a great expence in settling them.

Amongst these patentees, we see the lords Brook, Say and Seal, the Pelhams, the Hampdens, and the Pyms; the names which afterwards appeared with so much eclat upon a greater stage. It was said that Sir Matthew Boynton, Sir William Constable, Sir Arthur Hallerig, and Oliver Cromwell, were actually upon the point of embarking for New England; when archbishop Laud, unwilling that so many objects of his hatred should be removed out of the reach of his power, applied for, and obtained, an order from the court to put a stop to these transportations; and thus he kept forcibly from venting itself, that virulent humour which he lived to see the destruction of himself, his order, his religion, his master, and the constitution of his country.

Massachuset's Bay had now settlements very thick all along the sea-shore. Some slips from these were planted in the province of Main and New Hampshire, being torn from the original stock by the religious violence, which was the chief characteristic of the first settlers in New England. The patentees we last mentioned principally settled upon the river Connecticut, and established a separate and independent government there: some persons having before that fixed themselves upon the borders of this river, who fled from the tyranny arising from the religious differences which were

were moulded into the firſt principles of the Plymouth and Maſſachuſet's ſettlements.

The people of New England, for a conſiderable time, had hardly any that deſerved the name of a regular form of government. The court took very little care of them. By their charter they were empowered to eſtabliſh ſuch an order, and to make ſuch laws, as they pleaſed, provided they were not contrary to the laws of England. A point not eaſily ſettled, neither was there any means appointed for ſettling it.

Their religion was the Puritan. In England, this could hardly be conſidered as a formed ſect at the time of their emigration, ſince ſeveral who had received epiſcopal ordination were reckoned to belong to it. But as ſoon as they found themſelves at liberty in America, they fell into a way very little different from the independant mode.

The very doctrine of any ſort of toleration was ſo odious to the greater part, that one of the firſt perſecutions ſet up here was againſt a ſmall party which aroſe amongſt themſelves, who were hardy enough to maintain, that the civil magiſtrate had no lawful power to uſe compulſory meaſures in affairs of religion. After harraſſing theſe people by all the vexatious ways imaginable, they obliged them to fly out of their juriſdiction. Theſe emigrants ſettled themſelves to the Southward, near Cape Cod, where they formed a new government upon their own principles, and built a town, which they called Providence. This has ſince made

made the fourth and ſmalleſt, but not the worſt inhabited, of the New England governments, called Rhode Iſland, from an Iſland of that name which forms a part of it. As a perſecution gave riſe to the firſt ſettlement of New England, ſo a ſubſequent perſecution in this colony gave riſe to new colonies, and this facilitated the ſpreading of the people over the different parts of North America.

The very firſt colony had hardly ſet its foot in America, when, diſcovering that ſome amongſt them were falſe bretheren and ventured to make uſe of the common-prayer, they found means of making the country ſo uneaſy to them, that they were glad to fly back to England.

The Quakers, warmed with that ſpirit which animates the beginning of moſt ſects, had ſpread their doctrines all over the Britiſh dominions in Europe, and began at laſt to ſpread them with equal zeal in America. The clergy and the magiſtrates in New England took the alarm; they ſeized upon ſome of thoſe people, they ſet them in the ſtocks and in the pillory without effect; they ſcourged, they impriſoned, they baniſhed them; they treated all thoſe, who ſeemed to commiſerate their ſufferings, with great rigour; but their perſecution, like all other religious perſecutions, had no other effect than to inflame their own cruelty and the zeal of the ſufferers. The conſtancy of the Quakers under their ſufferings begot a pity and eſteem for their perſons, and an approbation of their doctrines; their proſelytes increaſed;

the Quakers returned as fast as they were baniſhed; and the fury of the ruling party was raiſed to ſuch an height, that they proceeded to the moſt ſanguinary extremities.

Upon the law they had made, they ſeized at different times upon five of thoſe who had returned from baniſhment, condemned, and hanged them. It is unknown how far their madneſs had extended, if an order from the king and council in England about the year 1661 had not interpoſed to put a ſtop to ſuch violent proceedings.

They perſecuted the Anabaptiſts, who were no inconſiderable body amongſt them, with almoſt an equal ſeverity. In ſhort, this people, who in England could not bear being chaſtiſed with rods, had no ſooner got free from their fetters than they ſcourged their fellow refugees with ſcorpions; though the abſurdity, as well as the injuſtice, of ſuch a proceeding in them might have taught them better.

As ſoon as the New England Puritans began to breath a little from theſe diſſenſions, and had their hands tied up from perſecuting the Quakers and Anabaptiſts, they fell not long after into another madneſs of a yet more extraordinary and dangerous kind, which, like ſome epidemical diſeaſe, ran through the whole country, and which is perhaps one of the moſt extraordinary deluſions recorded in hiſtory. This tragedy began in the year 1692.

There is a town in New-England, which they fanatically called Salem, and now the principal Port Town of New-England, ſince the

the ſhutting up of the Port of Boſton by Act of Parliament. One Paris was miniſter of this town. He had two daughters troubled with convulſions; which being attended with ſome of thoſe extraordinary appearances not unfrequent in ſuch diſorders, he imagined they were bewitched. As ſoon as he concluded upon witchcraft as the cauſe of the diſtemper, the next inquiry was, how to find out the perſon who had bewitched them. He caſt his eyes upon an Indian ſervant woman of his own, whom he frequently beat, and uſed her with ſuch ſeverity that ſhe at laſt confeſſed herſelf the witch, and was committed to gaol, where ſhe lay for a long time. The imaginations of the people were not yet ſufficiently heated to make a very formal buſineſs of this; therefore they were content to diſcharge her from priſon after a long confinement.

This example ſet the diſcourſe about witchcraft afloat, and ſome people, troubled with a ſimilar complaint, began to fancy themſelves bewitched too. Perſons in an ill ſtate of health are naturally fond of finding out cauſes for their diſtempers, eſpecially ſuch as are extraordinary, and call the eyes of the public upon them. There was perhaps ſomething of malice in the affair beſides. For one of the firſt objects whom they fixed upon was Mr. Burroughs, a gentleman who had formerly been miniſter of Salem; but, upon ſome of the religious diſputes which divided the country, he differed with his flock and left them. This man was tried with two others for witchcraft, by a ſpe-

cial

cial commiſſion of oyer and terminer, directed to ſome of the gentlemen of the beſt fortunes, and reputed to be of the beſt underſtandings in the country. Before theſe judges, a piece of evidence was delivered, the moſt weak and childiſh, the moſt repugnant to itſelf, and to common-ſenſe, that perhaps ever was known upon any ſerious occaſion. Yet by thoſe judges, upon that evidence, and the verdict founded upon it, this miniſter, a man of a moſt unexceptionable character, and two others, men irreproachable in their lives, were ſentenced to die, and accordingly hanged. Then theſe victims of the popular madneſs were ſtript naked, and their bodies thrown into a pit, half covered with earth, and left to the diſcretion of birds and wild beaſts. Upon the ſame evidence, in a little time after, ſixteen more ſuffered death; the greateſt part of them dying in the moſt exemplary ſentiments of piety, and with the ſtrongeſt profeſſions of their innocence.

The flame occaſioned by theſe executions ſpread with rage and rapidity into every part of the country. Neither the tenderneſs of youth, nor the infirmity of age, nor the honour of the ſex, nor the ſacredneſs of the miniſtry, nor the reſpectable condition of fortune or character, was the leaſt protection. Children of eleven years old were taken up for ſorcery. The women were ſtripped in the moſt ſhameful manner to ſearch them for magical teats. The ſcorbutic ſtains common on the ſkins of old perſons, were called the devil's pinches.

This was indiſputable evidence againſt them. What theſe extraordinary teſtimonies wanted was compleated by the torture, by which a number of theſe unhappy victims were driven to confeſs whatever their tormentors thought proper to dictate to them. Some women owned they had been lain with by the devil, and other things equally abominable and ridiculous. Others fled the province, and many more were preparing to fly. The priſons were crouded; people were executed daily; yet the rage of the accuſers was as freſh as ever, and the number of the witches and the bewitched increaſed every hour.

They began at laſt to accuſe the judges themſelves. What was worſe, the neareſt relations of Dr. Encreaſe Mather were involved, and witchcraft began even to approach the governor's own family. It was now high time to give things another turn. The accuſers were diſcouraged by authority. One hundred and fifty, who lay in priſon, were diſcharged. Two hundred more were under accuſation; they were paſſed over; and thoſe who had received ſentence of death were reprieved, and in due time pardoned. A few cool moments ſhewed them the groſs and ſtupid error that had carried them away, and which was utterly inviſible to them all the while they were engaged in this ſtrange perſecution. They grew heartily aſhamed of what they had done. But what was infinitely mortifying, the quakers took occaſion to attribute

all this miſchief to a judgment on them for their perſecution.

This violent fit carried off ſo much of that humour, that the people there are now grown like the reſt of mankind in their manners and conduct. As ſoon as theſe troubles were abated, they began every day to encreaſe in ſtrength, prudence, and riches, till they arrived at that ſtate of grandeur in which we now ſee them, and poſſeſſed of that power, which obliges the mother-country to call in the aſſiſtance of foreign troops to ſubdue them.

STATE

STATE

OF THE

BRITISH COLONIES

IN

NORTH AMERICA.

NEW BRITAIN, *or* ESQUIMAUX, *comprehending* HUDSON'S BAY.

THE country lying round Hudſon's Bay, is bounded on the north by unknown lands and frozen ſeas about the Pole; on the eaſt, by the Atlantic Ocean; on the ſouth, by the bay and river of St. Laurence and Canada; and on the weſt, by unknown lands.

The knowledge of theſe ſeas was owing to a project for the diſcovery of a north-weſt paſſage to China. So early as the year 1576 this noble deſign was conceived; ſince then,

it has been frequently dropped; it has often been revived; it is not yet compleated; but was never deſpaired of by thoſe whoſe knowledge and ſpirit make them competent judges and lovers of ſuch undertakings; and it ought to be mentioned as a credit to the preſent times, that the Britiſh parliament have lately promiſed 30,000l. as a reward to the fortunate purſuer of this enterpriſe.

Frobiſher only diſcovered the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and thoſe ſtraits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John David ſailed from Dartmouth, and viewed that and the more northerly coaſts; but he ſeems never to have entered the bay. Hudſon made three voyages on the ſame adventure, the firſt in 1607, the ſecond in 1608, and his third and laſt in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator, entered the ſtraits that lead into this new Mediterranean, coaſted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees twenty-three minutes into the heart of the frozen zone.

His ardour for the diſcovery not being abated by the difficulties he ſtruggled with in this empire of winter and world of froſt and ſnow, he ſtayed here until the enſuing ſpring, and prepared in the beginning of 1611 to purſue his diſcoveries; but his crew, who ſuffered equal hardſhips without the ſame ſpirit to ſupport them, mutinized, ſeized upon him and ſeven of thoſe who were moſt faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the ſeas in an an open boat. Hudſon and his companions

were

were either ſwallowed up by the waves, or, gaining the inhoſpitable coaſt which they water, were deſtroyed by the ſavages; but his fate ſo calamitous cannot ſo much diſcourage a generous mind from ſuch undertakings, as the immortality of his name, which he has ſecured by having given it to ſo great a ſea, will be a ſpur to others to expect an equal honour.

From the firſt voyage of Frobiſher, an hundred and ten years ago, to that of captain Ellis, notwithſtanding ſo many diſappointments, the rational hopes of this grand diſcovery have grown greater by every attempt, and ſeem to ſpring even out of our very failures. The greater ſwell of the tides in the inner part of the bay than near the ſtraits, an appearance ſo unknown in any other inland ſeas, and the increaſe of this ſwell with weſterly winds, ſeem, without any other arguments, to evince the certain exiſtence of ſuch a paſſage as we have ſo long ſought without ſucceſs.

There is ſomething ſo agreeable and entertaining, and at the ſame time ſo many objects worthy the attention of every curious reader, in the expeidtion of Mr. Ellis to the North Seas, that we ſhall not appoligize for giving the following particulars of that undertaking.

Two ſhips were purchaſed by a committee appointed to manage the preparations of this important voyage: one of theſe was an hundred and eighty tons burthen, called the Dobbs-Galley; and the other of one hundred and

forty tons, called the California. These veſſels were perfectly well repaired and ſtrengthened, and in all reſpects fitted as well as could be deſired, for the voyage they were intended to make. They had alſo a ſufficient quantity of proviſions, military and naval ſtores, with ſuch goods as were fit for preſents to the inhabitants of the countries that might be diſcovered, put on board them in ſufficient quantity, and as good in their reſpective kinds as it was poſſible to procure.

Mr. Ellis was appointed to go this voyage, in quality of agent for the committee, without being obliged to do any duty, or ſubject to any command, but what was impoſed upon him by the inſtructions of the committee: the principal articles of which were, that he ſhould make exact draughts of all the new-diſcovered countries, the bearings and diſtances of head-lands; that he ſhould mark the rocks and ſhoals on the coaſt; aſſiſt in that material buſineſs of determining the ſeveral circumſtances attending tides, as alſo to examine the ſaltneſs of the water, to obſerve the variation of the compaſs, to take notice of the different natures of the ſoil, and to collect, to the utmoſt of his power, metals, minerals, and all kinds of natural curioſities.

The ſhips thus prepared for this expedition, fell down from Graveſend to the Hope, on the twentieth of May, 1746, and lay there till the twenty-fourth of the ſame month; but, in the mean time, the veſſels in the ſervice of the Hudſon's Bay Company, and his majeſty's

majeſty's ſhip, the Loo, of forty guns, intended for their convoy, were ſailed for the Nore, where they ſoon followed them; and, on the thirty-firſt the commodore made a ſignal to weigh, which was done accordingly by the whole fleet.

On the eighteenth of June, theſe two veſſels loſt company with the Hudſon's Bay ſhips, which were the laſt they ſaw for that year. The Dobbs-Galley and the California being now left by themſelves, ſignals were compoſed and agreed on, for the better keeping company, which proved, in the courſe of the voyage, very uſeful in that reſpect.

Nothing occurred, but the common circumſtances of the wind and weather, till the twenty-firſt at night, when a terrible fire broke out in the great cabin of the Dobbs, and quickly made its progreſs to the powder-room, which was directly underneath it, and where there were no leſs than thirty or forty barrels of powder, beſides candles, ſpirits, matches, and all manner of combuſtibles.

It is impoſſible to expreſs the confuſion and conſternation this accident occaſioned. The dangerous place the fire was in gave every one on board the greateſt reaſon to expect, that moment, or the next at moſt, would be their laſt. On this occaſion were heard all the variety of ſea eloquence, cries, prayers, curſes, and ſcolding, mingled together; yet this did not prevent proper meaſures being taken to ſave the ſhip and the lives of the crew.

Water

Water in great abundance was paſſed along and properly applied, and all other methods uſed by thoſe, who, in ſpite of theſe diſturbances, ſtill preſerved their reaſon; but, as for the crew in general, their apprehenſions ſuggeſted to them a variety of expedients, which, without weighing or conſidering, they one moment endeavoured to execute, and the next abandoned through diſtraction and deſpair. At length, however, the fire was happily extinguiſhed, and with it their dreadful fears and apprehenſions.

On the twenty-ſeventh they fell in with great quantities of low ice, in latitude fifty-eight degrees thirty minutes to the eaſtward of Cape Farewell, in Groenland, which obliged them to ſtand to the ſouthward. They ſailed for ſome time after this through abundance of drift wood; but from whence this wood came, is ſtill a matter of much uncertainty.

On the fifth of July they began to fall in with thoſe mountains of ice, which are always met with near Hudſon's Straits. This mountainous ice is of a prodigious ſize; and Mr. Ellis confirms what other navigators have aſſerted, that ſome of it is five or ſix hundred yards thick.

On the eighth they made the iſlands of Reſolution, at the diſtance of about half a mile. It was owing to the fogginеſs of the weather that they did not ſee them ſooner, and it was happy for them that it cleared as it did; for had thoſe fogs continued but a little longer, probably

robably they would have gone on ſhore, and heir veſſels been broken to pieces on the ocks. Even as it was, they cleared but with reat difficulty, for the wind falling, and the ea tumbling in on the ſhore, they were forced o have recourſe to the ſhip's oars; and by the elp of theſe, and the boats towing a-head, hey made ſhift to deliver themſelves from this anger. In their paſſage from thence, to the pper Savage iſlands, they met with little ice obſtruct them.

At theſe Iſlands, there came on board of hem three large and twenty-ſix ſmall canoes ull of Eſquimaux Indians, with whom they xchanged ſaws, hatchets, gimblets, &c. for halebone and ſeal-ſkins.

On the 17th, the ice being very thick about hem, they made faſt to a very large piece of , with ſeveral ice anchors and ropes. Here e crews of both veſſels filled their empty ks with freſh water, out of the ponds which e commonly found upon the ice.

On the 19th of Auguſt, after having touch- at ſome few Iſlands, as the weather began ſet in ſevere, they came to a reſolution of eking ſome place for winter quarters; and, ter debating it in council, they bore away r Port Nelſon, in Hudſon's Bay.

On the 26th, they arrived at the mouth of e ſouthern Branch, or Hayes's River, where e Dobbs went aground, and had like to have en loſt. The governor of this place, which longed to our Hudſon's Bay Company, not ly refuſed them all kind of aſſiſtance, but

uſed

uſed every means poſſible for their deſtruction. He ordered the beacon to be cut down, which was the only proper mark they had to guide them into a place of ſafety. Not contented with this, as he found the adventurers were determined to winter there, he ſent moſt of the Indians, whoſe chief buſineſs is to kill deer, geeſe, &c. into the country, on purpoſe that they might not make uſe of them in that way, or be in any manner benefited by their means.

They ſpent their time, till the 11th of September, in lightening and preparing the ſhips for their quarters. On the 12th, they ran a-breaſt of the fort, anchored there, and landed the remainder of their proviſion and ſtores. Here they dug a hole twelve feet deep, to bury their ſtrong and ſmall beer in to preſerve it from the froſt.

It was the 26th, notwithſtanding all the diligence they could uſe, before the ſhips were ſecured in the creek. This being effected they turned their thoughts on the method neceſſary for their own preſervation, being certain, that the ſeverity of the cold would render it impoſſible for them to live on board their ſhips: ſome of the people were employed in cutting fire wood, and others in building log tents. Theſe were made of trees hewn and cut, abovt ſixteen feet long, raiſed cloſe together, their ends lying one againſt another at the top, but extending at the bottom, in the form of the roof of a country houſe: between theſe logs the vacancies were ſtuffed with moſs, and that being plaiſtered over with clay, made

a warm

warm hut. The door was low and ſmall, a re place in the middle, and a hole over it to t out the ſmoak. Other huts, of taſte ſome- ning more elegant, and in a more pleaſant tuation, were erected for the officers.

On the 5th of October, they had much ice n the Creek, and by the 8th, it was faſt fro- en. Until the 30th, they had ſnow, froſts, nd moderate weather alternately. On the 31ſt, Hayes's River was frozen quite hard: ſo hat now they had ſome experience of what as to be expected from a Hudſon's Bay inter.

On the 2d of November, they could not eep the ink from freezing at the fire. On the d, they diſcovered all the bottled beer to be rozen ſolid, though packed up in tow, and ear a good fire. On the 6th, the cold be- ame inſupportable abroad, ſo that the ſailors were diſtributed among the ſeveral tents, which were conſigned for their preſervation and con- eniency in the woods, and the officers retired o their more elegant ſituation.

They began about this time to put on their winter dreſs, which conſiſted of a robe of bea- er ſkin, with the fir on, and which reached o their heels. They had two waiſtcoats under t; a cap and mittins of the ſame, lined with flannel; a pair of Indian ſtockings over their arn ones, made of broad cloath or leather, which reached up to the mid thigh; with ſhoes of ſoft tanned Mooſe or Elk-ſkin, under which hey wore two or three pair of blanket, or hick duffil ſocks, to prevent their feet from

freezing

freezing: a pair of snow shoes about five feet long, and eighteen inches broad, to hinder them from sinking in the snow, compleated their dress. Nothing could be better contrived than this garb, both for convenience and use; for, when they were thus equipped, they were able to stand the keenest cold, except only for a few days, that happened during the winter.

As in every country, different seasons produce, or rather direct men to different employments: so in this, their utmost skill was shewn, and industry exerted, in killing rabbits and partridges, which was the chief game to be met with at that season.

The manner in which they caught the rabbits, was as follows. They cut down several bushy trees; with these they made a hedge two feet high, and of what length they pleased, leaving at every twenty yards distance, small holes for the rabbits to run through; for it was observed, that they never attempted to jump over. In these were set snares of wire, the end of which were made fast to the end of a pole that lay over a crutch, in such a manner, that when the rabbits entered, and began to struggle, the pole kicked up and hung them two or three feet off the ground. This circumstance had a double conveniency, as it secured the game they wanted, and by their being thus suspended, protected them when taken from being devoured by other animals.

They use at these factories no other method of killing the partridges than shooting them.

and

and in this they are very ſucceſful, they being there in very great plenty, in ſomuch that ſome men may be able to ſhoot ſixty or eighty in a day's time, which makes a good article in the magazine liſt of winter proviſions.

The habitation of the beaver, and the ſeveral inſtruments he ſo amazingly makes uſe of in the erection of his lodgment, are matters too curious to be omitted here.

His implements are theſe three, his teeth, his paws, and his nails. His teeth are very ſtrong: with theſe he cuts not only the wood with which he builds his lodge, but that too which is his principal ſuſtenance and ſupport. His fore feet are like thoſe of ſuch other animals as take delight in nibbling their food, and hold it in their paws. He makes uſe likewiſe of his fore-feet to dig and ſcratch up the ground, and then to ſoften and plaſh, or mould his clay, which is of ſingular ſervice to him. His hind-feet are ſupplied with membranes, or large films, between his toes, like thoſe of ducks, ſwans, and all other water fowl.

This animal, who from his birth is an architect, makes uſe of his tail as a trough, or hod, to carry away his mortar or clay, and afterwards as a trowel to perform the plaiſtering. His ſcales preventing theſe materials doing any injury to his tail, by means of their coldneſs or their moiſture; and that profuſion of oil, which he diffuſes all over his ſkin with his ſnout, is evidently of ſingular ſervice in

the preſervation of his body from any ill effects ariſing from the water.

In order to erect a commodious dwelling-houſe, they make choice of ſome good ſpot of ground that is well ſtored with proviſions, and waſhed by ſome gentle ſtream, that they may be enabled to form a baſon or reſervoir of water proper for their bagnio. Their firſt care is to erect a mole or dyke, wherein the water may riſe to a level with the firſt ſtory of their intended habitation.

The materials whereof their mole conſiſts are wood and clay. Theſe beavers cut, with ſurprizing eaſe, large pieces of wood, ſome much thicker than one's arm, and about four, five, and ſix feet in length, according as the ſlope of their habitation aſcends. They drive one end of theſe ſtakes into the ground, and at ſmall diſtances one from the other, intermingling a few with ſuch as are ſmaller and more pliant.

As the water, however, would find a paſſage through the intervals or ſpace between them, and leave the reſervoir dry, they have recourſe to a clay, which they know very well where to find, and with which they ſtop up all the caveties both within and without, ſo that the water is properly confined. They continue to raiſe the dyke, in proportion to the elevation of the water, and the plenty which they have of it.

As ſoon as the dyke or mole is compleated, their next care is to erect their ſeveral apartments, which are either round or oval, and divided

divided into three ſtories, one raiſed above the other. The firſt below the level of the cauſey, which is generally full of water; the other two above it. This little fabric is built in a very firm and ſubſtantial manner, on the edge of their reſervoir, and always in ſuch diviſions or apartments as above mentioned, that, in caſe of the water's encreaſe, they may move up a ſtory higher, and be no ways incommoded.

As their teeth are more ſerviceable than ſaws, they cut off all the wood that projects beyond their walls; and after they have mixed up ſome clay and dry graſs together, they work it into a kind of mortar, with which, by the help of their tail, they plaiſter all their works within and without.

The manner of the Hudſon's-Bay Indians taking them, is firſt to drain as much of the water from their reſervoirs or dykes as poſſible. This being done, and their doors covered with a ſtrong net, they break in at the top of the houſe, which as ſoon as the beavers diſcover, they run to the door to make their eſcape, and are there entangled in the nets, ſeized by the Indians, and immediately ſkinned.

But to return to our adventurers. As November ſet in with keen froſts, ſo they continued through the whole of that month, without any other alteration, than that of freezing more or leſs, as the wind changed. When the wind was weſterly or ſoutherly, the cold was very ſupportable; but as it changed

to the north weſt, or north, it became immediately exceſſively keen, and often attended with a ſort of ſnow, no larger than ſo many grains of ſand, which drifted with the wind in clouds, and rendered it very dangerous to be far from home.

It was their cuſtom to put a horſe load of wood at leaſt at a time into their ſtove, which was built of brick, ſix feet long, two wide, and three high. When the wood was near burnt, the embers were beat off, the brands thrown out, and the top of the chimney ſtopped, which occaſioned a ſulpherous, ſuffocating ſmell, and ſo great a heat, that, notwithſtanding the rigour of the climate, it frequently threw them into a ſweat.

The difference was ſo great between the heat within, and cold without, that ſuch as had been expoſed to the ſeverity of the cold without doors, very often fainted on entering the houſe, and remained for ſome time in a kind of helpleſs condition. If a door or window was but opened, the cold air ruſhed in with great fury, as turned the incloſed vapours into ſmall ſnow; nor was all the heat they could raiſe ſufficient to keep their windows, the cieling, or ſides of the houſe clear from ſnow and ice: thoſe, whoſe bedcloaths touched the walls, were generally frozen faſt to them by morning, and their breaths ſettled in a white hoar froſt upon the blankets.

As ſoon as the houſe cooled, the ſap that was thawed in the timber with the heat, froze, ſplitting it with cracks little inferior

rior in noiſe to the report of a muſquet. No liquid could withſtand the cold, if expoſed to it; ſtrong brine, brandy, and even ſpirits of wine, froze; but the latter not into a ſolid maſs, but to the conſiſtence of oil; and even this when the weather was between temperate and ſevere. All the liquors under the proof of common ſpirits, froze to a ſtate perfectly ſolid; and burſt the veſſels that contain them, whether of wood, tin, or even copper.

The ice in the rivers about them was above eight feet thick, and the ſnow three deep, but where it drifted conſiderably more. Whatever freſh proviſions they could procure, as deer's fleſh, rabbits, partridges, pheaſants, fiſh, &c. kept ſweet as long as they pleaſed, without deriving any aſſiſtance from ſalt; for they are no ſooner killed than they are frozen, and remain ſo from October to April, when they begin to thaw, and conſequently grow moiſt and ſpoiled.

Several of the ſailors had their faces, ears, and toes frozen, but not dangerouſly. Whilſt the fleſh was in that ſtate it was white and hard like ice, but by rubbing the part with a warm hand, or, what was found better, with a beaver mitten, it ſoon thawed, and this accident was attended with no worſe conſequence than leaving a bliſter behind.

In this climate, if any one touches iron, or any other ſmooth ſolid ſurface in the winter, their fingers are frozen faſt to it: if in drinking a dram of brandy out of a glaſs, the

tongue or lips touched it, in pulling them away, the ſkin was left upon it.

Mr. Ellis mentions an odd inſtance of this kind happening to one of his people, who was carrying a bottle of ſpirits from the houſe to his tent. Having no cork to ſtop the bottle, he made uſe of his finger, which was ſoon frozen faſt; and was obliged to loſe part of it to make a cure practicable. All ſolid bodies, ſuch as glaſs, iron, &c. acquire a degree of cold ſo very intenſe, that they reſiſt the effects even of a ſtrong heat, and that for a conſiderable time.

On examining the liquor that was frozen, in the center of it, a ſmall part of the ſpirituous liquor remained fluid, which retained a greater degree of ſtrength than when the whole was fluid; but the frozen part, when melted, taſted inſipid. Other caſks were not burſt, or their contents above half congealed: the watry parts of theſe having time to thaw and mix with the ſpirituous, the whole, when they came to drink it, proved very good, and ſome even fancied it better than if it had never been frozen.

From this long account of the ſeverity of their winters, it is natural for any reader to conclude this country the moſt uncomfortable in the world, and its inhabitants the moſt unhappy; but, in fact, they are very far from it. If the weather is cold, they have abundance of beaver ſhirts to clothe them, and many other conveniencies, which put them at leaſt on a level with thoſe who live in a milder climate.

climate. "But what in this reſpect will appear much more extraordinary, (ſays Mr. Ellis) I dare aſſert, that people from Europe, who have lived here many years, prefer it to all other places; and when they leave it, and come home with the ſhips, they grow tired, in a few months, of a more moderate climate, and wiſh with impatience for the proper ſeaſon, that may give them an opportunity of reviſiting thoſe frozen regions."

The whole month of January wore the ſettled face of winter; for, though that ſometimes the weather was dark and tempeſtuous, with vaſt drifts of ſnow, and at other times pretty clear, yet the froſt was conſtant and intenſe.

In the month of March, they had ſpecimens of every kind of weather. Sometimes it was not only temperate, but in ſome degree warm; at others, cold again as ever; but for the moſt part moderate and pleaſant. By this time alſo the plains were covered, and the rivers filled with water: ſo that they began to think of putting men and officers on board their ſhips.

April opened in ſuch a manner as freed them from the terrors they had been under for the ſafety of their ſhips, ſhould a ſudden thaw have enſued. On the thirteenth of this month, they buried one of their men. He had been a great drinker of drams, ſo that the ſcurvy, which had raged among them, though with little fatality, would not ſpare him. The ground was ſo hard frozen, that it was,

generally

generally ſpeaking, three or four days work to ſink a grave; but when the corpſe was once fairly laid in it, they remained ſafe and uncorrupt, and are ſo like to remain, unleſs ſome great alteration ſhould happen in that climate, to the end of the world.

On the eighteenth, the weather began to mend, and the wind coming about to the ſouth, they had a gentle ſhower of rain: a thing they had not ſeen for ſix months before, and therefore the more welcome. The fowls too, after an abſence of ſeven months, began to viſit them. They had likewiſe a great flight of ſmall birds, moſt of a dark unpleaſing colour; but the ſweetneſs of their notes ſufficiently compenſated whatever was amiſs in their plumage, and made their company equally harmonious and agreeable.

About the ſixth of May, the warm weather returned again, and the creek, where the ſhips lay, was quite clear of ice, that wore away imperceptibly, though the river continued to be ſtill hard frozen, which drove the fiſh into the creek, where they caught plenty of them with their nets.

On the ſixteenth, the ice in the channel of Hayes's river gave way, and floated down gently with the ſtream. The ſailors were all this time conſtantly employed in making the ſhips fit to go down the river; and accordingly, on the twenty-ninth, by the help of a very high tide, occaſioned by a north-weſt wind, they warped to the very mouth of the creek, and lay there until the ſecond of June.

On

On the ninth of June, their ſhips got down the river as far as the factory, where they took in their naval ſtores, proviſions, &c. in order to put to ſea, and proſecute the diſcovery upon which they were ſent.

On the twenty-fourth, having a fair wind, they weighed anchor, and paſſing the ſhoals, ſtood to the northward on the diſcovery. The next day they ſailed through much broken ice, till they got to the northward of Cape Churchill, where they had a clear ſea, and proceeded without difficulty, till the laſt day of the month, when they made Centry iſland, in latitude ſixty-one degrees forty minutes north.

The Eſkimaux, who inhabits the ſea-coaſts to the northward of the Company's ſettlements, appeared from time to time in ſmall bodies of forty or fifty together, upon the eminences of the iſlands on that ſhore, ſhouting, and making ſignals for them to approach; but they proceeded on their courſe without minding them, until they arrived at Knight's iſland, in the latitude of ſixty-two degrees two minutes.

On the fifth of June, they ſtood over to the ſouth ſide of Sir Biby's iſland, in hopes that they ſhould have been able to enter the opening; but the ice driving out and in, in very large pieces, they were obliged to deſiſt. They then ſtood to the northward as far as latitude ſixty-two degrees twelve minutes.

On the eighth they ſailed with an intention to coaſt to the northward; but in repaſſing

the

the ſhoals, the tide ſwept them upon a ridge of ſtones, where their veſſel was very near being ſtove to pieces. However, by the friendly aſſiſtance of the Indians, it was got off without ſuffering any damage. It ſhould here be obſerved, that this veſſel was neither the Dobbs nor the Calliſornia, but a ſmall one they had built while at Hudſon's Bay, for the purpoſe of coaſting.

On the ninth of July, they arrived at Sea-Horſe iſland, which is very properly named, there being a prodigious reſort of thoſe creatures thither; and the time in which our adventurers were there being the ſeaſon of propagation, they were exceſſively furious, roaring in a terrible manner; many of them flouncing about the beach, and much greater numbers in the ſea that waſhes its coaſts.

Having ſpent ſome time in coaſting in this little veſſel, they reſolved to return again to the ſhips, which they joined on the thirteenth of July, and then proceeded on diſcoveries in concert. As we are ſenſible, that a mere journal of a voyage, without ſome enlivening circumſtances, though uſeful in the higheſt degree to mariners, affords very little amuſement or inſtruction to readers who never traverſe the boundleſs ocean, we ſhall draw this account to a ſpeedy concluſion.

Wager Strait, which lies in the latitude of ſixty-five degrees, thirty-three minutes, appears to be the higheſt latitude Mr. Ellis gained; though the following paſſage, which we meet with in Mr. Ellis's account, ſhould ſeem

to

to carry it much higher: "It was obſerveable, that in ſailing from York Fort, every thing dwindled and diminiſhed, ſo that trees ſhrunk into bruſhwood, in the latitude of ſixty-one degrees, and none of the human ſpecies appeared beyond the latitude of ſixty-ſeven degrees." In the beginning of September, they reſolved to ſail for England; and arrived ſafe in Yarmouth Roads, on the fourteenth of October, after an abſence of one year, four months, and ſeventeen days, having ſailed from theſe roads on the twenty-ſeventh of May, 1746.

Thus the great deſign of finding a north-weſt paſſage failed, but with no diſcredit, either to thoſe who planned the expedition, or to thoſe who were intruſted with the execution of it. Such great deſigns, even in their failure, beſtow a ſufficient reward for whatever has been expended upon them.

In 1670, a charter was granted to a company for the excluſive trade to Hudſon's Bay, and they have acted under it ever ſince with great benefit to the private men, who compoſe the company, though comparatively with little advantage to Great Britain.

It is true, that their trade in beavers and other ſpecies of furs is not inconſiderable, and is a trade in itſelf of the beſt kind; its object enters largely into our manufactures, and carries nothing but our manufactures from us to procure it; and thus it has the qualities of the moſt advantageous kinds of traffic. The company has beſides pretty large returns in

beaver

beaver and deer ſkins. It is ſaid that the dividends of this company are prodigious, far exceeding what is gained in any of the other great trading bodies; yet their capital is ſmall, they ſeem little inclined to enlarge their bottom, and appear ſtrongly poſſeſſed with that ſpirit of jealouſy that prevails in ſome degree in all knots and ſocieties of men endued with peculiar privileges. The acquiſition of Canada to the Britiſh dominions in North America, has indeed, in ſome degree, lowered the price of beaver, and forced the company to fall ſomething in their extravagant demands.

The officers of the company have behaved to thoſe who wintered within their juriſdiction in ſearch of the north-weſt paſſage (one of the purpoſes for which the company itſelf was originally inſtituted) in ſuch manner as to give us the trueſt idea of this ſpirit; and we have already mentioned ſome of thoſe circumſtances, in our account of Mr. Ellis's attempt in thoſe ſeas.

The company has two inconſiderable forts at Hudſon's Bay, no colony having hitherto been attempted to be ſettled there. The country is every where barren; to the northward of the bay even the hardy pine-tree is ſeen no longer, and the cold womb of the earth is incapable of any better production than ſome miſerable ſhrubs. The winter reigns with inconceivable rigour for near nine months of the year; the other three are violently hot, except when the north-weſt wind renews the memory of the winter. Ere

kind of European ſeed, which we have committed to the earth in this inhoſpitable climate, has hitherto periſhed; but, in all probability, we have not tried the ſeed of corn from the northern parts of Sweden and Norway; in ſuch caſes, the place from whence the ſeed comes is of great moment.

All this ſeverity and long continuance of winter, and the barrenneſs of the earth which ariſes from thence, is experienced in the latitude of fifty-two, in the temperate latitude of Cambridge. However, it is far from increaſing uniformly as you go northwards. Captain James wintered in Charlton iſland, in latitude fifty-one; he judged that the climate here was to be deemed utterly uninhabitable on account of the ſurprizing hardſhips which he ſuffered; yet the company has a fort, called Fort Nelſon, in latitude fifty-four, where their ſervants make a ſhift to ſubſiſt tolerably well.

The animals of theſe countries are clothed with a cloſe, ſoft, warm fur. In ſummer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the ſeveral animals; when that is over, they all aſſume the livery of winter, and every ſort of beaſts, and moſt of their fowls, are of the colour of the ſnow; every thing animate and inanimate is white: this is a ſurpriſing phænomenon; but what is ſtill more ſurpriſing, and what is indeed one of thoſe ſtriking things that draw the moſt inattentive to an admiration of the wiſdom and goodneſs of Providence, is, that the dogs and

cats from England, that have been carried into Hudſon's Bay, on the approach of winter, have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, ſofter, and thicker coat of hair, than they had originally.

Among the different animals met with in theſe cold regions of the world, are the moofe and rein deer, ſtags, bears, tygers, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, martins, ſquirrels, wild cats, and hares. The feathered inhabitants of theſe regions of ice are geeſe, ducks, buſtards, patridges, and the different ſpecies of wild fowls. Their ſeas abound with whales and ſeals, and cod-fiſh are caught in plenty near their ſhores. Their rivers produce moſt of thoſe fiſh common to more ſouthern countries, ſuch as pike, trout, carp, and perch.

It may not here be amiſs to obſerve, that all the quadrupedes of this new world are leſs than thoſe of the old; even ſuch as are carried from Europe to breed there, are often found to degenerate, but are never ſeen to improve. Beaſts of prey, which are often fatal to man in Africa and Aſia, are here quite harmleſs.

As for the men of the country, Providence there, as every where elſe, has given them no proviſion but their own art and ingenuity, and they ſhew a great deal in their manner of kindling a fire, in cloathing themſelves, and in preſerving their eyes from the ill effects of that glaring white, which every where ſurrounds them for the greateſt part of the year; in other reſpects they are very ſavage. In their ſhapes and faces, they do not reſemble the Americans

eans who live to the ſouthward; they are much more like the Laplanders and Samoeids of Europe, from whom they are probably deſcended. The other Americans ſeem to be of a Tartar original.

Theſe Indians are obſtinately attached to their own cuſtoms and manner of living. Some of them, who have been taken priſoners by the ſouthern Indians, when they were boys, and brought to the factories, and there kept for ſeveral years, have ſtill regretted their abſence from their native country. One of theſe, (ſays Mr. Ellis) after having been fed on Engliſh diet, being preſent when one of the Engliſhmen was cutting up a ſeal, from whence the train oil ran very plentifully, licked up what he could ſave with his hands, and cried, "Ah! commend me to my own country, where I could get my belly full of this."

As to the dreſs of theſe people, much might be ſaid, and that too not unentertaining; but we ſhall be very conciſe. The mens cloaths are of ſeal ſkins, deer ſkins, and ſometimes alſo are made of the ſkins of land and ſea fowl ſewed together. Each of their coats has a hood like a capuchin, is cloſe from the breaſt, and reaches not lower than the middle of the thigh. Their breeches are cloſe, before and behind, gathered like a purſe with a ſtring, and tied about their waiſts. They have ſeveral pair of boots and ſocks, which they wear over one another to keep them warm, and which keeps out the water.

The difference between the dreſs of the men and the women is, that the women have a train to their jackets, that reaches down to their heels. Their hoods are alſo larger and wider at the ſhoulders, for the ſake of carrying their children in them more conveniently on their backs, and their boots are a great deal wider, and are commonly ſtuck out with ſticks of whalebone. Some of them wear ſhifts of ſeal bladders, ſewed together, nearly of the form of thoſe in Europe.

In general, their cloaths are ſewed very neat, which is performed with an ivory needle, and the ſinews of deer ſplit fine, and ſo uſed for thread. There is likewiſe a good deal of taſte and judgment diſcovered in the manner, in which they adorn them with ſtripes of different coloured ſkins, ſewed in the manner of borders, cuffs, and robings for their cloaths, which altogether look very tight, neat, and even elegant.

If their cloaths and other neceſſaries are well contrived, their ſnow-eyes, as they very properly call them, are no leſs ſo. Theſe are bits of wood or ivory, neatly formed to cover the organs of ſight, and tied at the back of the head. In each piece of wood are two ſlits, of the ſame length with the eyes, but narrow, through which they ſee very diſtinctly, and without feeling any inconvenience. This invention prevents ſnow blindneſs, a very grievous and painful diſtemper, occaſioned by the action of the light ſtrongly reflected from the ſnow upon the eyes, more eſpecially in the ſpring,

ſpring, when the ſun is pretty high. The uſe of theſe ſtrengthen the ſight prodigiouſly, and becomes ſo habitual, that when they would obſerve any object at a great diſtance, they commonly look through them, as we do through teleſcopes.

Their religious ſentiments are very limited and imperfect. They acknowledge a Being of infinite goodneſs, whom they ſtile *Ukkewma*, which in their language ſignifies *Great Chief*: they look upon him as the author of all the benefits they enjoy, and ſpeak of him with reverence. They likewiſe ſing a kind of hymn in his praiſe, and this in a grave ſolemn tone, not altogether diſagreeable. Yet their ſentiments on this head are very looſe and confuſed, ſo that it is not eaſy to ſay what they mean by this kind of public worſhip. They likewiſe ackowledge another Being, whom they call *Wittikka*, and whom they repreſent as the inſtrument of all kinds of miſchief and evil, and of him they are very much afraid; but, however, we know of no methods made uſe of by them to appeaſe him.

The condition of theſe poor people is melancholy enough, though it does not make ſuch an impreſſion on them as one would expect; for though the beſt part of their life is ſpent in procuring neceſſaries for the ſubſiſtance of themſelves and their families, yet they have no great notion of frugality, or providing againſt thoſe diſtreſſes, to which they are ſure to be expoſed every winter: they are very free of their proviſions when they have plenty,

and, except drying a little veniſon and fiſh, take no care for ſupplies in time of dearth.

It has ſometimes happened that the Indians, who come in the ſummer to trade at the factories, miſſing of the ſuccour they expected, have been obliged to ſinge off the hair from thouſands of beaver ſkins, in order to feed upon the leather. Yet even in ſuch caſes, they keep up their ſpirits in a tolerable degree, omit nothing that is in their power to procure wherewith to ſupport their families, and when reduced to the greateſt extremities, undergo them with a kind of habitual and ſteady patience, which is much eaſier to admire than imitate.

But the greateſt of theſe hardſhips and fatigues, to which they are expoſed, as well from hunger as from cold, happen to them in their journies; for it is a thing common with them to travel two or three hundred miles, even in the depth of winter, through a wide open country, without meeting with any houſe to receive, or carrying any tent to protect them.

In ſuch journies it is their cuſtom, when night approaches, to raiſe a little kind of fence with bruſh-wood, to the leeward of which they make a fire, and, after clearing away the ſnow, they lie down upon the ground, and ſleep between the fire and the fence; but if, as it ſometimes falls out, they happen to be benighted upon ſome wild plain, where no ſuch fence can be made for want of wood, they are then forced to lie down under the ſnow,

which

which proves ſome defence from the cold: and this, as from the writings of modern authors appears, as a thing likewiſe practiſed in the extremities of Siberia, where the climate is not at all more temperate.

Great as their hardſhips are, which reſult from the rigour of the cold, yet it may juſtly be affirmed, that they are much inferior to thoſe which they feel from the ſcarcity of proviſions, and the difficulty they are under in procuring them. A ſtory, which is related at the factories, and known to be true, will ſufficiently prove this, and give the compaſſionate reader a juſt idea of the miſeries, to which theſe unhappy people are expoſed.

An Indian, with his family, coming down to trade from a place at a very great diſtance, had the misfortune to meet but with very little game by the way; ſo that, in a ſhort time, himſelf, his wife, and his children, were reduced to the laſt diſtreſs. In theſe circumſtances, they plucked the fur from their clothes, and preſerved life, as long as they were able, by feeding on the ſkins they wore. But even this wretched reſource ſoon failed them; and then, what is terrible to conceive, and horrible to relate, theſe poor creatures ſuſtained themſelves by feeding on the fleſh of two of their children.

On their arrival at the factory, the diſtracted Indian, whoſe heart overflowed with grief, told this melancholy affair to the Engliſh governor, with all its affecting circumſtances, which was received with a loud laugh. The

poor

poor ſavage, with a look of amazement, ſaid, in his broken Engliſh, "*This is no laughing talk!*" and ſo went his way, highly edified, no doubt, with theſe *Chriſtian* morals.

CANADA, *or the Province of* QUEBEC.

THIS extenſive country is bounded by Eſquimaux, or New Britain, and Hudſon's Bay, on the north; by the river of St. Laurence, the Iroquois, or Five Indian Nations, the Huron and Illonois lakes, on the eaſt and ſouth; and by unkown lands on the weſt. It is ſituated between ſixty-one and eighty-one degrees of weſt longitude, and between forty-five and fifty-two degrees of north latitude, being about eight hundred miles in length, and two hundred in breadth. It was formerly in the poſſeſſion of the French, but was confirmed to England by the peace of 1763.

Our poſſeſſions in this part of America conſiſt of an immenſe inland country, communicating with the ſea by the mouths of two great rivers, both of difficult and dangerous navigation at the entrance, and one of which is quite frozen for almoſt half the year, and covered with thick exhalations and fogs for the greater part of the reſt.

The climate of Canada is not altogether different from that of its neighbouring colonies, Nova-Scotia, New-England, and New-York; but, as it is much further from the ſea, and more

more northerly than a great part of thoſe provinces, it has a much ſeverer winter; though the air is generally clear. The ſoil is various, moſtly barren; but there are ſettlements, in which the land is equal in goodneſs to that in any of the other colonies, and wants nothing but a better convenience of market to make it equally advantageous to the proprietors. It yields Indian corn very well in moſt parts, and very fine wheat in ſome. All ſorts of garden ſtuff which grows in Europe flouriſhe here.

The greateſt foreſts in the world are in the uncultivated parts of America. A more magnificent ſight than theſe woods cannot be imagined: the tops of the trees loſe themſelves in the clouds, and there is ſuch a prodigious variety of ſpecies, that even among thoſe perſons who have taken moſt pains to know them, there is not perhaps one capable of deſcribing half the number. This province produces, amidſt this great variety, two ſorts of pines, the white and the red; four ſorts of firs; two ſorts of cedar and oak; the male and female maple; three ſorts of aſh trees; three ſorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the ſoft, and the ſmooth; vaſt numbers of beech trees and white wood, white and red elms, and poplars.

The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, ſome of which, made out of one piece, will contain twenty perſons; others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they ſew together with the inner rind, and daub over

over the ſame with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter reſembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; and the ribs of theſe canoes are made with the boughs of trees. About November, the bears and wild cats take up their habitation in the hollow elms, and continue there till April. Here are alſo found cherry trees, plumb trees, and the vinegar tree, the fruit of which, infuſed in water, produces a liquid reſembling vinegar in taſte; an aquatic plant, called alaco, the fruit of which may be made into a confection; the cotton tree, on the top of which grow ſeveral tufts of flowers, which, when ſhaken in the morning, before the dew falls off, produce honey, that may be boiled up into ſugar, the ſeed being a pod, containing a very fine kind of cotton; the ſun plant, which reſembles a marigold, and grows to the height of ſeven feet.

This country abounds in coals, and near Quebec is a fine lead mine. In ſome of the mountains, ſilver is ſaid to have been found, though no advantage as yet appears to have been made from it.

The air of this country is ſo exceſſive cold from December to April, that the greateſt rivers are frozen over, and the ſnow lies commonly from four to ſix feet deep on the ground, even in the ſouthern parts of the country. This inconveniency, to which we may add the falls in the river St. Laurence, below Montreal, which prevent veſſels of any burthen from reaching that emporium of inland commerce, will always ſtop the communication

nication during the winter ſeaſon, between Canada and the ſouthern colonies, until roads are formed, that can be travelled without danger from the Indians. For it muſt here be obſerved, that theſe ſavage people often commence hoſtilities againſt us without any previous notice; and frequently, without any provocation, they commit the moſt horrid ravages for a long time with impunity. But when at laſt their barbarity has rouſed the ſtrength of our people, they are not aſhamed to beg a peace, which, when granted, they promiſe ſhall endure as long as the ſun and moon.

The Canadians raiſe no ſtaple commodity to anſwer their demands upon England: their trade with the Indians produces all their returns for that market. They are the furs of the beaver principally, and thoſe of foxes and racoons, with deer-ſkins, and all the branches of the peltry. Theſe, with what corn and lumber they ſend to the Weſt Indies, to a people not very luxurious nor extremely numerous, furniſh, though very little money, yet wherewithal, in a plentiful country, to render life eaſy and agreeable.

The nature of the climate ſeverely cold for the moſt part, and the people manufacturing nothing, ſhews what the country wants from Europe; wine, brandy, cloths chiefly coarſe, linen, and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires brandy, tobacco, a ſort of duffil blankets, guns, powder and ball, kettles, hatchets, and tomakawks, with ſeveral toys and trinkets

trinkets. Tne Indians ſupply the peltry, and we have traders, who, in the manner of the original inhabitants, traverſing the vaſt lakes and rivers that divide this country, in canoes of bark, with incredible induſtry and patience, carry their goods into the remoteſt parts of America, and amongſt nations entirely unknown to us. This again brings the market home to us, as the Indians are hereby habituated to trade with us. For this purpoſe, people from all parts, even from the diſtance of a thouſand miles, come to the fair of Mont-Real, which is held in June. On this occaſion many ſolemnities are obſerved; guards are placed, and the governor aſſiſts, to preſerve order in ſuch a concourſe of ſo great a variety of ſavage nations.

Mont-Real, is ſituated in an iſland in the river St. Laurence. This iſland lies in a very favourable climate, and is well inhabited and well planted. The city, which is ſometimes called Mont-Real, ſometimes Ville Marie, is agreeably ſituated on a branch of St. Laurence; it forms an oblong ſquare, divided by regular and well-cut ſtreets; it contains three convents, with handſome churches, and an hoſpital for the ſick. The fortifications are pretty good, and the inhabitants are ſaid to be about five thouſand. The river is only navigable hither by canoes, or ſmall craft, having ſeveral falls between this town and Quebec. Yet the Indian fair, and the trade of the ſame kind which they drive more or leſs for the whole year, make it no inconſiderable place.

Quebec

Quebec, the capital, lies much nearer to the ſea; from which, however, it is one hundred and fifty leagues diſtant. The river, which from the ſea hither is ten or twelve miles broad, narrows all of a ſudden to about a mile wide. The town is divided into an upper and a lower; the houſes in both are of ſtone, and in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are ſtrong, though not regular; but its ſituation on a rock, waſhed by the river St. Laurence, is its chief defence. The city is a biſhopric, though the cathedral is mean; but the epiſcopal palace is a building of a good appearance. Here is likewiſe a college of jeſuits, not inelegant; two convents and two hoſpitals. The town is covered with a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor reſides. The city, though the capital of Canada, is however not very large. It contains about ſeven or eight thouſand inhabitants at the utmoſt. Ships of the greateſt burthen load and unload here, and a good many are built.

From Quebec to Mont-Real, which is about one hundred and fifty miles diſtance, the country on both ſides the river is very well ſettled, and has an agreeable effect upon the eye. The farms lie pretty cloſe all the way; ſeveral gentlemens houſes, neatly built, ſhew themſelves at intervals; and there is all the appearance of a flouriſhing colony; but there are no towns or villages. It is pretty much like the well-ſettled parts of our colonies of

Virginia and Maryland, where the planters are wholly within themſelves.

The great river St. Laurence is that only upon which we have ſettlements of any note; but if we look forward into futurity, it is nothing improbable that this vaſt country, when the preſent unhappy differences ſhall no longer ſubſiſt, and when their mode of government ſhall be altered, will be enabled of itſelf to carry on a vaſt trade upon theſe great ſeas of freſh water which it environs. Here are five lakes, the ſmalleſt of which is a piece of ſweet water greater than any in the other parts of the world; this is the lake Ontario, which is not leſs than two hundred leagues in circumference; Erie, longer but not ſo broad, is about the ſame extent. That of the Hurons ſpreads greatly in width, and is in circumference not leſs than three hundred; as is that of Michigan, though, like lake Erie, it is rather long and comparatively narrow. But the lake Superior, which contains ſeveral large iſlands, is five hundred leagues in the circuit. All of theſe are navigable by any veſſels, and they all communicate with one another, except that the paſſage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by the ſtupendious cataract of Niagara, where the water tumbles down a precipice of twenty-ſix fathom high, and makes in this fall a thundering noiſe, which is heard all round the country at the diſtance of ſeveral miles. The river St. Laurence is the outlet of theſe lakes; by this they diſcharge themſelves into the ocean. Forts are built at the

ſeveral

ſeveral ſtraits, by which theſe lakes communicate with each other, as well as where the laſt of them communicates with the river St. Laurence. By theſe they effectually ſecure to themſelves the trade of the lakes, and an influence upon all the neighbouring nations of Americans.

We have but one ſettlement more in the northern part of theſe territories which deſerves conſideration; but that ſettlement, though a ſmall one, is perhaps of more conſequence than all the reſt: it is the iſland of Cape Breton. It is about one hundred and forty miles in length, full of mountains and lakes, and interſected by a vaſt number of creeks and bays, almoſt meeting each other on every ſide; which ſeems in general, both for the coaſt and inland, very much to reſemble the coaſt and inland parts of moſt northern countries. Scotland is ſo; ſo is Iceland; and Denmark and Sweden have ſuch ſhores, ſuch mountains, and ſuch lakes. However, the ſoil is in many places ſufficiently fruitful; and in every part abounds with timber fit for all uſes. In the earth are coal-pits, and on the ſhores one of the moſt valuable fiſheries in the world. The only town in this iſland is Louiſbourg. It ſtands upon one of the fineſt harbours in all America. This harbour is four leagues in circumference, land-locked every way but at the mouth, which is narrow; and within there is fine anchorage every where in ſeven fathom water. The town itſelf is of a tolerable ſize, and well built and fortified. The har-

bour is defended by batteries of cannon and forts, which effectually ſecure it. This harbour is open the whole year. Our ſhips that carry goods to Quebec can very ſeldom get their full loading there; therefore on their return they put into Louiſbourg, and there take in a quantity of fiſh, coal, and ſome lumber, and then ſail away to the iſlands in the Weſt-Indies, where they vend theſe, and ſoon complete their cargoe with ſugars.

With reſpect to the government of Canada, we have only to obſerve, that at the time this country was conquered by the Engliſh, the inhabitants were allowed the free exerciſe of their religion, and were permitted to enjoy all the privileges of the Britiſh laws and conſtitution; but notwithſtanding the royal word was pledged for the fulfilling of this promiſe, our government has ſince thought proper to revive the military government, to aboliſh trials by jury, and to make the Roman Catholic the eſtabliſhed religion of theſe extenſive territories. Thus a proteſtant prince, limited in his government at home, is an abſolute monarch over all his catholic ſubjects in Canada. We ſhall treat this ſubject more at large, when we come to conſider the famous government Quebec bill, in our account of the riſe and progreſs of the preſent American diſputes. We ſhall conclude this account of Canada with the moſt curious parts of its natural hiſtory.

The animals that find nouriſhment and ſhelter in the immenſe foreſts of Canada, and which indeed traverſe the uncultivated parts of

of all this continent, are ſtags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, ferrets, and rabbits. The marſhes, lakes, and pools, which in this country are very numerous, ſwarm with otters, beavers or caſtors, of which the white are much valued, being ſcarce, as well as the right black kind.

The American beaver, though reſembling the creature known in Europe by that name, has many particulars, which induce us to conſider it as a very curious creature. It is near four feet in length, and weighs near ſixty or ſeventy pounds. It lives from fifteen to twenty years, and the females generally bring forth four or five young ones at a time. It is an amphibious quadruped; and, though it continues not long in the water at any one time, yet it cannot live without frequently bathing in it. The ſavages, who wage a continual war with this animal, believed that it was a rational creature, lived in ſociety, and was governed by a leader, reſembling their own ſachem or prince. It muſt indeed be allowed, that the curious accounts given of this animal by ingenious travellers, the manner in which it continues its habitation, provides food to ſerve during the winter, and always in proportion to the ſeverity and continuance of it, are ſufficient to ſhew the near approach of inſtinct to reaſon, and even, in ſome inſtances, the ſuperiority of the former Their colours are different, black, brown, white, yellow, and ſtraw-colour, but it is obſerved, that the lighter is their colour, the leſs quantity of fur

they are cloathed with, and therefore live in warmer climates.

The furs of the beaver are of two kinds, the dry and the green: the dry fur is the ſkin before it is applied to any uſe; the green are the furs that are worn, after being ſewed to one another, by the Indians, who beſmear them with ſome unctuous ſubſtances, which not only render them more pliable, but give the fine down which is manufactured into hats, that oily quality which renders it proper to be worked up with the dry fur.

Many medicinal qualities are aſcribed to the elk, the hoof of whoſe left foot is ſaid to be good againſt the falling ſickneſs. This animal is of the ſize of a horſe or mule, its fleſh is very agreeable and nouriſhing, and its colour a mixture of light grey and dark red. They love the cold countries, and when the winter affords them no graſs, they gnaw the barks of trees. It is dangerous to approach very near this animal, when he is hunted, as he ſometimes ſprings furiouſly on his purſuers, and tramples them to pieces.

The carcajou is a carniverous animal, of the feline or cat kind, with a tail ſo long, that Charlevoix ſays, he twiſted it ſeveral times round his body. Its body is about two feet in length, from the end of the ſnout to the tail; and it is ſaid that this animal, winding himſelf about a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, twiſt his ſtrong tail round his body, and in a moment tear his throat open.

They

They have a kind of wild ox, called the uffaloe, which has much the ſame appearnce with thoſe of Europe: his body is coverd with black wool, which is highly eſteemed. he fleſh of the female is very good; and the uffaloe hides are as ſoft and pliable as Claoes leather, but ſo very ſtrong, that the ucklers made of them by the Indians are ardly penetrable by a muſket ball.

Wolves are ſeldom ſeen in Canada, but the ew there are afford the fineſt furs in all the ountry: their fleſh is white, and good to eat, nd they purſue their prey to the tops of the alleſt trees.

Of the feathered creation, they have eagles, alcons, tercols, partridges, grey, red, and lack, with long tails, which they ſpread out s a ſun, and make a very beautiful appearnce. Snipes, and other water game, are lentiful in Canada, but woodcocks are ſelom ſeen. Here are likewiſe a variety of ther birds peculiar to the northern parts of urope; but the chief Canadian bird of meody is the white-bird, which is a kind of orolan, makes a very pretty appearance, and remarkable for anouncing the return of pring.

The rattle-ſnake ſeems to be the only repile in this country worthy of our notice, ſome f which are as thick as a man's leg, and five r ſix feet in length. The tail, which is the oſt remarkable part of this animal, is ſcaly ke a coat of mail, and on which, it is ſaid, here grows every year one ring, or row of ſcales.

ſcales. By this its age is readily diſcovered. In moving, it makes a rattling noiſe, and from hence it derives its name. The bite of this ſerpent is mortal, if a remedy is not inſtantly applied; but Providence has been pleaſed ſo to direct it, that wherever this ſerpent lurks, a plant grows, which affords an infallible cure to the wounded perſon. The rattle-ſnake ſeldom bites paſſengers, unleſs it is provoked, and never darts itſelf at any perſon without firſt rattling his tail three times. When purſued, if it has but a little time to recover, it folds itſelf round, with the head in the middle, and then darts itſelf with great fury and violence againſt its purſuers. The ſavages, however, purſue it, and not only apply it to medicinal purpoſes, but find its fleſh very good to eat.

The lakes of Canada abound with innumerable ſpecies of fiſh, among which are ſea-calves, ſea-cows, porpoiſes, ſea-plaiſe, and moſt of thoſe kinds common to us in Europe; but the chaouraſuo ſeems to claim our particular attention: this is an armed fiſh, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, reſembling a pike; but it is covered with ſcales that are proof againſt a dagger. Its colour is a ſilver grey, and there grows under his mouth a long boney ſubſtance, ragged at the edges. It is not difficult to conceive, that an animal ſo well fortified is a ravager among the watery inhabitants; but we have few inſtances of fiſh making prey of the fearthered creation, which this fiſh does, and that with much art. It con-

ceals

eals iſelf among the canes and reeds, in ſuch a manner that nothing is to be ſeen beſides his eapon which he holds raiſed perpendicularly bove the ſurface of the water. The fowls hich come to take reſt, imagining the weapon be only a withered reed, perch upon it; ut they are no ſooner alighted, than the fiſh pens his throat, and makes ſuch a ſudden otion to ſeize his prey, that it ſeldom eſcapes im.

OVA SCOTIA, *or* NEW SCOTLAND.

THIS province, which may be ſtill ſaid to be but in its infancy, is ſituated between ity-three and forty-nine degrees of North titude, and between ſixty and ſixty-ſeven egrees of Weſt longitude, being about three undred and fifty miles in length, and two undred and fifty in breadth. It is bounded the North by the river St. Laurence; on e Eaſt, by the gulf of St. Laurence; on the outh, by the ſame ocean; and on the Weſt Canada and New England.

Though this vaſt province lies in a very vourable part of the temperate zone, it has a nter of an almoſt inſupportable length and ldneſs, continuing at leaſt ſeven months in e year; to this immediately ſucceeds, with- t the intervention of any thing that may be lled ſpring, a ſummer of an heat as violent the cold, though of no long continuance;

and

and they are wrapt in the gloom of a perpe-
tual fog, even long after the ſummer ſeaſon
has commenced. In moſt parts, the ſoil is
thin and barren, the corn it produces of a
ſhrivelled kind like rye, and the graſs inter-
mixed with a cold ſpongy moſs. However,
it is not uniformly bad; there are tracts in
Nova Scotia, which do not yield to the beſt
land in New England.

Unpromiſing as this country is, yet, neglect-
ing all thoſe delightful tracts to the Southward,
it was here that ſome of the firſt European
ſettlements weré made. The French ſeated
themſelves here before they made any eſtabliſh-
ment in Canada; but whatever unaccount-
able ignorance influenced their choice, the
induſtry and vigour of that time deſerve our
applauſe; for, though they had infinitely more
difficulties to ſtruggle with than we have at
this day, and not the hundredth part of the
ſuccours from Europe, yet they ſubſiſted in a
tolerable manner, and increaſed largely; whe-
the colony which in our days we have fixed
there, if the ſupport of the royal hand was
withdrawn but for a moment, after all the
immenſe ſums which have been expended in
its eſtabliſhment, would undoubtedly ſink into
nothing.

It is with difficulty it ſubſiſts, even encou-
raged and ſupported as it is. Yet the deſign
of eſtabliſhing a colony here, with whatever
difficulties it might have been attended, was
a very prudent meaſure; for the French
would undoubtedly have profited of our

neglect

eglects, and have by ſome means got this
ountry into their hands, to the great annoy-
ce of all our colonies, and to the great be-
fit both of their fiſhery and their ſugar iſlands.
The laſt peace, how ever, ſettled theſe mat-
rs effectually. What may be the ſtate of
is colony, ſhould the preſent diſputes long
ntinue, is difficult to ſay. The non-impor-
ion agreement entered into by the colonies,
d confirmed by an act of even the Britiſh
giſlature, ſeems to portend no good to this
ble province. Let us hope, that it will not
d in its ruin.

The chief town we had formerly in this
ovince, was called Annapolis Royal; but,
ough the capital, it was a ſmall place,
etchedly fortified, and yet worſe built and
abited. Here were ſtationed the remains
a regiment, which continued there, very
le recruited, ſince the reign of queen Anne;
though this place never flouriſhed, it ſtood
on the very beſt harbour, as it is ſaid, in
rth America; but it was not here, but on
South-Eaſt ſide of the peninſula, that the
lement not many years ſince reſolved and
cuted with ſo much ſpirit, was eſtabliſhed.
is too ſtands upon a fine harbour, very
modiouſly ſituated, and rather better
n Annapolis for the fiſhery. The town is
ed Halifax from the noble earl, to whoſe
dom and care we owe this ſettlement. In
3, three thouſand families, at an immenſe
ge to the goverment, were tranſported
this country at once, and three regiments

ſtationed

ſtationed there to protect them from the In
dians, who always ſhewed themſelves our mo
implacable enemies. The town is large, and
for ſo new a ſettlement, well built. It ha
a good intrenchment of timber, ſtrengthene
with forts of the ſame materials, ſo as to be i
little danger at leaſt from an Indian enemy.

Though this town of Halifax has, a
things conſidered, a tolerable appearance, th
adjacent country is not improved in propo
tion; the ground is very hard to be cleared
when cleared, does not produce a great dea
and labour is extravagantly dear. But th
colony has ſuffered more from the incurſio
of the Indians than from any thing elſe. The
incurſions have been ſo frequent, and attend
with ſuch cruelties, that the people cou
hardly extend themſelves beyond the cannon
the fort, nor attend their works of agricultu
even there without the greateſt danger. T
conſequence of this is, that they do not ra
the fifth part of what is ſufficient to maint
them. Moſt of their proviſion of every ſo
comes from New England, and they m
have ſtarved if it were not for the fiſhe
which it muſt be owned is not contemptib
and for ſome little naval ſtores, and the p
of the garriſon, the ſpending of which h
is the principal uſe of the troops: againſt
Indian enemy they are of very little effe
though there are three regiments, and all
fighting men the Indians can raiſe in that p
vince are not five hundred. The ſoldiers,
active by their confinement in their barra

diſeaſed for the moſt part with the ſcurvy, and debilitated by the uſe of ſpirituous liquors, are quite an undermatch for the activity, vigilance, patience, and addreſs of the American.

Beſides Annapolis and Halifax, we have another ſettlement a little to the South-Weſt of the latter, called Lunenburg. This is a branch of Germans from Halifax, who, being diſcontented at the infertility of the ſoil there, deſired to go where there was better land to be had, undertaking their own defence; accordingly they ſettled where they deſired, to the number of ſeven or eight hundred, and ſucceed tolerably well.

The animal productions of this country are not very different from thoſe in Canada, though the principal are deers, beavers, otters, wild fowl, and all manner of game, and many kinds of European fowls and quadrupedes, have, from time to time, been brought into it, and anſwer every expectation. At the cloſe of March, the fiſh begin to ſpawn, when they enter the rivers in ſuch ſhoals as are almoſt incredible. Herrings came up in April, and the ſturgeon and ſalmon in May. However, the moſt valuable conſideration in this ſettlement is the Cape Sable coaſt, along which is one continued range of cod-fiſhing banks, and harbours moſt advantageouſly formed by nature.

Woollen and linen cloth, and other neceſſaries for wear, fiſhing-tackle, rigging for ſhips, are the chief exports from Great Bri-

tain to this country; and the only article we get in exchange, are timber, and the produce of the fiſhery.

NEW ENGLAND.

THIS province, in which the preſent diſputes between America and the Mother country firſt broke out, is ſituated between forty-one and forty-ſix degrees of north latitude, and between ſixty-ſeven and ſeventy-four of weſt longitude, being about three hundred and fifty miles long, and two hundred broad. It is bounded by Nova-Scotia on the north-eaſt, by Canda on the weſt, by New York on the ſouth, and by the Atlantic Ocean on the eaſt.

Though this country is ſituated almoſt ten degrees nearer the ſun than we are in England, yet the winter begins earlier, laſts longer, and is incomparably more ſevere than it is with us. The ſummer again is extremely hot, and more fervently ſo than in places which lie under the ſame parallels in Europe. However, both the heat and the cold are now far more moderate, and the conſtitution of the air in all reſpects far better, than our people found it at their firſt ſettlement. The clearing away of the woods, and the opening of the ground every where, has, by giving a free paſſage to the air, carried off thoſe noxious vapours which were ſo prejudicial to the health of the firſt inhabitants. The temper of the ſky is

gener.lly

generally, both in ſummer and in winter, very ſteady and ſerene. Two months frequently paſs without the appearance of a cloud; and their rains, though they are heavy, do not continue any long time.

The ſoil of New England is various, but beſt as you approach the ſouthward. It afterwards affords excellent meadows in the low grounds, and very good paſture almoſt every where. They commonly allot at the rate of two acres to the maintenance of a cow. The meadows, which they reckon the beſt, yield about a ton of hay by the acre. Some produce two tons, but the hay is rank and ſour. This country is not very favourable to any of the European kinds of grain. The wheat is ſubjected to be blaſted, the barley is an hungry grain, and the oats are lean and chaffy. But the Indian corn, which makes the general food of the loweſt ſort of people, flouriſhes here.

As this ſpecies of grain is not univerſally known in England, and as it is that of all others which yields the greateſt increaſe, we ſhall give a ſhort deſcription of it. This plant, which the native Americans call the Weachin, is known in ſome of the ſouthern parts of America by the name of Maize. The ear is about a ſpan in length, conſiſting of eight rows of the corn, or more, according to the goodneſs of the ground, with about thirty grains in each row. On the top of the grain hangs a ſort of flower, not unlike a taſſel of ilk, of various colours, white, blue, greeniſh,

black, ſpeckled, ſtriped, which gives this corn, as it grows, a very beautiful appearance. The grain is of all the colours which prevail in the flower, but moſt frequently yellow and white. The ſtalks ſix or eight feet high, and of a conſiderable thickneſs. They are leſs high in New England, and other northern countries, than in Virginia and thoſe which lie more to the ſouthward. They are jointed like a cane, and at each of theſe joints ſhoot out a number of leaves like flags, that make very good fodder for the cattle. The ſtalk is full of a juice, of which a ſyrup as ſweet as ſugar has been frequently made.

This grain is frequently ſowed in little ſquares, and requires a very attentive cultivation. The ground in which it flouriſhes moſt is light and ſandy, with a ſmall intermixture of loam. About a peck of ſeed is ſufficient for an acre, which at a medium produces about twenty-five buſhels. The New England people not only make bread of this grain, but they malt and brew it into a beer, which is not contemptible. However, the greater part of their beer is made of molaſſes, hopped with the addition ſometimes of the tops of the ſpruce fur infuſed therein.

Beſides this and other ſpecies of grain, they raiſe a large quantity of flax, and have made eſſays upon hemp, that have been far from unſucceſsful. An acre of their cow-pen land produces about a ton of this commodity; but the land is pretty ſoon exhauſted. This plant probably

robably requires a climate more uniformly warm than New England; for though the greater part of our hemp is brought to us from northern parts, yet it is in the more ſoutherly provinces of Ruſſia, that the beſt which comes to our market is produced.

There is a great variety of valuable timber in New England, ſuch as oak, aſh, cedar, fur, pine, elm, beech, cyprus, &c. and various woods uſed in dying and ſhip-building. Though the oaks here are not ſo valuable as thoſe of England, yet their furs are of an amazing bulk, and furniſh the Britiſh royal navy with maſts and yards. Mines of iron, of an excellent kind and temper, have been diſcovered in New England; and it is not to be doubted, were the proprietors of them properly encouraged, that we ſhould have little occaſion to ſend to Sweden for this article. But, for ſome years paſt, very little has been done for the improvement of this colony, though the neglect of it muſt certainly have hurt ourſelves. An unnatural jealouſy, raiſed by the artifices and falſe inſinuations of needy and ſervile governors, has at laſt put a total ſtop to the trade of this colony, and indeed to that of the whole continent of America.

The horned cattle of New England are very numerous, and ſome of them very large. Oxen have been killed there of eighteen hundred weight. Hogs likewiſe are numerous, and particularly excellent, and ſome ſo large as to weigh twenty-five ſcore. They have beſides, a breed of ſmall horſes, which are ex-

tremely hardy. They pace naturally, though in no very graceful or eaſy manner, but with ſuch ſwiftneſs, and for ſo long a continuance, as muſt appear almoſt incredible to thoſe who have not experienced it. They have a great number of ſheep too, and of a good kind. The wool is of a ſtaple ſufficiently long, but it is not near ſo fine as that of England. However, they manufacture a great deal of it very ſucceſsfully. They have cloths made there, of as cloſe and a firm contexture, though not ſo fine, as our beſt drabs; they are ſaid to be thick, and ſuperior, for the ordinary wear of country people, to any thing we make in England.

Here are likewiſe elks, deers, bears, wolves, foxes, and many other animals, ſome of which are brought into Europe as great curioſities; but one of the moſt ſingular animals, of this and the neighbouring countries, is the mooſe deer, of which there are two ſorts: the common light-grey mooſe, (reſembling the ordinary deer) which herd ſometimes thirty together; and the large black mooſe, whoſe body is about the ſize of a bull, his neck reſembles that of a ſtag, and his fleſh is extremely grateful. The horns when full grown, are about four or five feet from the tip, and have ſhoots, or branches to each horn, which generally ſpread about ſix feet. When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, he lays his horns back on his neck, to place them out of his way, and theſe prodigious horns are ſaid to ſhed every

every year; but this is, perhaps, a vulgar error, and ſimilar to that which ſome writers aſſert reſpecting the elephant, who is ſaid to have a new tuſk annually. This animal does not, like a deer, ſpring or riſe in pace; but it is ſaid, that a larger one of this ſpecies, in his common walk, has been ſeen to ſtep over a gate five feet high. When unharboured by the huntſman, he will run a courſe of twenty or thirty miles before he takes to a bay; but the water is generally the laſt aſylum he ſeeks.

Here are almoſt all the kinds of fowl common with us, but in much greater quantities. Their reptiles are rattle-ſnakes, frogs, and toads, which ſwarm in the uncleared parts of this country, where, in concert with the owls, they make a moſt hideous noiſe in the ſummer evenings. Their ſeas abound with fiſh, and even whales are no ſtrangers to their coaſts.

In this country are many gentlemen of conſiderable landed eſtates, which they let to farmers, or manage by their ſtewards or overſeers; but the greater part of the people is compoſed of a ſubſtantial yeomanry, who cultivate their own freeholds, without a dependance upon any but Providence and their own induſtry. Theſe freeholds generally paſs to their children in the way of gavelkind; *

* *A cuſtom, by which all the lands of the father are divided among his ſons, as the lands of a brother dying without iſſue among all the ſurviving brothers. This cuſtom was formerly obſerved in* England, *but is now aboliſhed; becauſe the female deſcendants were utterly excluded, and baſtards inherited with legitimate children.*

which

which keeps them from being almoſt ever able to emerge out of their original happy mediocrity.

This manner of inheriting has here an additional good effect: it makes the people the more ready to go backward into the uncultivated parts of the country, where land is to be had at an eaſy rate and in larger portions. The people, by their being generally freeholders, and by their form of government, have a very free, bold, and republican ſpirit. In no part of the world are the ordinary ſort ſo independent, or poſſeſs ſo many of the conveniencies of life; they are uſed from their infancy to the exerciſe of arms; and they have a militia, which is by no means contemptible; and indeed, if we may judge from their behaviour and courage during the preſent conteſts, we may conſider them as nearly equal to regulars. If theſe men were more regularly trained, and in better ſubordination, it would be impoſſible to find in any country, or in any time, ancient or modern, an army better conſtituted than that which New England can furniſh. This too is much the beſt peopled of any of our colonies upon the continent. It is judged that the four provinces which it compriſes, contain about three hundred and fifty thouſand ſouls, including a very ſmall number of black and Indians; the reſt are whites. Douglaſs, who ſeems to be well in-

informed in this point many years ago, pro-portioned them as follow :

Maſſachuſet's Bay,	200,000
Connecticut,	100,000
Rhode Iſland,	30,000
New Hampſhire,	24,000
	354,000

These four governments are confederated for their common defence. We have ſhewn how theſe ſeveral governments have ariſen. The moſt conſiderable of them for riches and number of people, though not for extent of territory, is Maſſachuſets Bay. This province, like the others, had originally a power of chuſing every one of their own magiſtrates, the governor, the council, and the aſſembly, and of making ſuch laws as they thought proper, without ſending them home for the approbation of the crown. But being accuſed of having abuſed this freedom, in the latter end of the reign of Charles the ſecond, they were deprived of it by a judgment in a *quo warranto* in the King's Bench in England. They remained from that time to the Revolution without any charter.

Some time after the Revolution they received a new one, which, though very favourable, was much inferior to the extenſive privileges of the former charter, and indeed were too extenſive for a colony : it was little more than

than a nominal dependence on the moth country, and the crown itlelf. But now, governor, lieutenant-governor, and the chi places of the law and revenue, are in the di poſal of the crown, ſo is the militia; a though the council is choſen by the repreſe tatives of the people, yet the governor has negative which gives him an influence, ſu ficient to preſerve the prerogative entire.

Appeals for ſums above three hundr pounds are admitted to the king and counci and all laws paſſed here muſt be remitted t England; where, if they do not receive a ne gative from the crown in three years, the are to be conſidered as valid, and are to hav the effect of laws; which they are to hav likewiſe until the time that the king's reſolu tion is known. But one point has been lon and reſolutely diſputed in this colony; th grant of a certain ſalary to their governo Many attempts have been made to induce the to this meaſure, but to no effect. They thin a dependence on the people for his ſalary th moſt effectual method of reſtraining the gover nor from any unpopular acts. To the Maſſa chuſets government is united the antient colo ny of Plymouth, and the territory which i called Main.

The colony of Connecticut, which lie upon a river of the ſame name to the ſouth o this province, has preſerved its antient pri vileges, which are now as conſiderable as thoſ of Maſſachuſets were formerly. At the time that the charter of the former was attacked

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at of this government was threatened with e ſame fate. But they agreed to ſubmit to e king's pleaſure; therefore, no judgment s given againſt them; and being found in is condition at the Revolution, it was judged at they were in full poſſeſſion of their old arter, and have ſo continued ever ſince.

The third and ſmalleſt of the provinces ich compoſe New England, is Rhode and. This conſiſts of a ſmall iſland of that me, and the old plantation of Providence. heſe united plantations had a charter the ne with that of Connecticut, and they have eſerved it by the ſame method. In this ovince is an unlimited freedom of religion, eeable to the firſt principles of its founda-n; and though very ſmall, it is from nce extremely well peopled.

New Hampſhire, the fourth province, is ch the largeſt of them all; but not inha-d in proportion. This is more northerly the greater part than any of the reſt. It royal government; that is, the crown has nomination of all the officers of juſtice and the militia, and the appointment of the ncil.

The government of New England, ſuch as have juſt deſcribed, is rather what it was nerly, than what it is at preſent, ſince an ately paſſed in parliament for altering the e of it; but this we ſhall more particularly ce hereafter.

We know of no ſettlement in North Ame- which can be compared, in the abun-

dance

dance of people, the number of conſiderab
and trading towns, and the manufactures th
are carried on in them, to New Englan
The moſt populous and flouriſhing parts
the mother country hardly make a better a
pearance. Our provinces to the ſouthwa
on this continent are recommendable for t
generous warmth of the climate, and luxu
riance of ſoil, which naturally throws up a va
variety of beautiful and rich vegetable pr
ductions ; but New England is the firſt
America, for cultivation, and for the numb
of people.

Though there are in all the provinces
New England large towns which drive a co
ſiderable trade, the only one which can d
ſerve to be much inſiſted upon in a deſign li
ours, is Boſton, the capital of Maſſachuſe
Bay, the firſt city of New England, and
all North America. This city is ſituated on
peninſula, at the bottom of a fine capacio
and ſafe harbour, which is defended from t
outrages of the ſea, by a number of iſland
and rocks which appear above water. It
entered but by one ſafe paſſage ; and that
narrow, and governed by the cannon of a r
gular and a very ſtrong fortreſs. The harbo
is more than ſufficient for the great number
veſſels, which carry on the extenſive trade
Boſton. At the bottom of the bay is a no
pier, near two thouſand feet in length, alo
which on the north ſide extends a row of wa
houſes. The head of this pier joins the pri
cipal ſtreet of the town, which is, like m

of the others, ſpacious and well built. The town lies at the bottom of the harbour, and forms a very agreeable view. It has a town-houſe, where the courts meet and the exchange is kept, large, and of a very tolerable taſte of architecture. There are ten churches within this town, and it contains at leaſt twenty thouſand inhabitants.

To form ſome judgment of the wealth of this city, we need only obſerve, that from Chriſtmas 1747, to Chriſtmas 1748, five hundred veſſels cleared out from this port only, for a foreign trade; and four hundred and thirty were entered inwards; to ſay nothing of coaſting and fiſhing veſſels, both of which are extremely numerous, and ſaid to be equal in number to the others. Indeed the trade of New England is great, as it ſupplies a large quantity of goods from within itſelf; but it is yet greater, as the people of this country are in a manner the carriers for all the colonies of North America and the Weſt Indies, and even for ſome parts of Europe. They may be conſidered in this reſpect as the Dutch of America. What a pity it is, and we may add, what a loſs it muſt be to the mother country, that the trade of this place ſhould be totally ſtopped, ſince it was computed, that before our unhappy differences aroſe, the amount of Engliſh manufactures, and India goods ſent into this colony from Great Britain, was not leſs on an average of three years than three hundred and ninety-ſix thouſand pounds.

Our imports from the ſame were calculated at three hundred and ſeventy thouſand five hundred pounds.

The commodities which the country yields are principally maſts and yards, for which they contracted largely with the royal navy; pitch, tar, and turpentine; ſtaves, lumber, boards; all ſorts of proviſions, beef, pork, butter and cheeſe, in large quantities; horſes, and live cattle; Indian corn and peaſe; cyder, apples, hemp and flax. Their peltry trade is not very conſiderable. They have a very noble cod fiſhery upon their coaſt, which employed a vaſt number of their people; they are enabled by this to export annually above thirty-two thouſand quintals of choice cod fiſh, to Spain, Italy, and the Mediterranean, and about nineteen thouſand quintals of the refuſe ſort to the Weſt-Indies, as food for the negroes. The quantity of ſpirits, which they diſtil in Boſton from the molaſſes they bring in from all parts of the Weſt-Indies, is as ſurpriſing as the cheap rate at which they formerly ſold it, which was under two ſhillings a gallon. With this they ſupply almoſt all the conſumption of our colonies in North America, the Indian trade there, the vaſt demands of their own and the Newfoundland fiſhery, and in great meaſure thoſe of the African trade; but they are more famous for the quantity and cheapneſs, than for the excellency of their rum.

They are almoſt the only one of our colonies which have much of the woollen and lin-

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en manufactures. Of the former they have nearly as much as ſuffices for their own cloathing. It is a cloſe and ſtrong, but a coarſe and ſtubborn ſort of cloth. A number of preſbyterians from the North of Ireland, driven thence, as it is ſaid, by the ſeverity of their landlords, from an affinity in religious ſentiments, choſe New England as their place of refuge. Thoſe people brought with them their ſkill in the linen manufactures, and meeting with very large encouragement, they exerciſed it to the great advantage of this colony. At preſent they make large quantities, and of a very good kind: their principal ſettlement is in a town, which in compliment to them is called Londonderry. Hats are made in New England, which, in a clandeſtine way, find a good vent in all the other colonies. The ſetting up of theſe manufactures has been in a great meaſure a matter neceſſary to them; for as they have not been properly encouraged in ſome ſtaple commodity, by which they might communicate with their mother country, while they were cut off from all other reſources, they muſt either have abandoned the country, or have found means of employing their own ſkill and induſtry to draw out of it the neceſſaries of life. The ſame neceſſity, together with their convenience for building and manning ſhips, has made them the carriers for the other colonies; and it is not improbable, that the oppreſſions of the Britiſh ſenate will make them ſenſible of ther power, which they ſeem already to have exerted in

ſuch a manner, as to raiſe the aſtoniſhment of all Europe.

Ship-building is one of the moſt conſiderable buſineſs which Boſton or the other ſea-port towns in New England carry on. Ships are ſometimes built here upon commiſſion; but frequently, the merchants of New England have them conſtructed upon their own account; and loading them with the produce of the colony, naval ſtores, fiſh, and fiſh-oil principally, they ſend them out upon a trading voyage to Spain, Portugal, or the Mediterranean; where, having diſpoſed of their cargo, they make what advantage they can by freight, until ſuch time as they can ſell the veſſel herſelf to advantage, which they ſeldom fail to do in a reaſonable time. They receive the value of the veſſel, as well as the freight of the goods, which from time to time they carried, and of the cargo with which they ſailed originally, in bills of exchange upon London; for as the people of New England have no commodity to return for the value of above a hundred thouſand pounds, which they take in various ſorts of goods from England, but ſome naval ſtores, and thoſe in great quantities, they are obliged to keep the balance ſomewhat even by this circuitous commerce, which, though not carried on with Great Britain nor with Britiſh veſſels, yet centers in its profits, where all the money which the colonies can make in any manner muſt center in the end.

Complaints

Complaints have been made of this trade, principally becauſe the people of New England, not ſatisfied with carrying out their own produce, become carriers for the other colonies, particularly for Virginia and Maryland, from whom they take tobacco, which in contempt of the act of navigation, they carry directly to the foreign market, where, not having the duty and accumulated charges to which the Britiſh merchant is liable to pay, they in a manner deprive him of the trade. Again, our ſugar colonies complain as loudly, that the vaſt trade which New England drives in lumber, live ſtock, and proviſions, with the French and Dutch ſugar iſlands, particularly with the former, enables theſe iſlands, together with the internal advantages they poſſeſs, greatly to underſel the Engliſh plantations. That, the returns which the people of New England make from theſe iſlands being in ſugar, or, the productions of ſugar, ſyrups and molaſſes, the rum which is thence diſtilled prevents the ſale of our Weſt-India rum. That this trade proves doubly diſadvantageous to our ſugar iſlands; firſt, as it enables the French to ſell their ſugars cheaper than they could otherwiſe afford to do; and then as it finds them a market for their molaſſes, and other refuſe of ſugars, for which otherwiſe they could find no market at all; becauſe rum interferes with brandy, a conſiderable manufacture of Old France.

Theſe conſiderations were the grounds of a complaint made by the iſlands to the legiſla-

ture in England many years ago. They desired that the exportation of lumber, &c. to the French colonies, and the importation of sugars and molasses from thence, might be entirely prohibited. This was undoubtedly a very nice point to settle. On one hand, the growth of the French West-Indies was manifest and alarming, and it was not to be thought that the French would ever wink at this trade, if it had not been of the greatest advantage to them. On the other hand, the northern colonies declared, that, if they were deprived of so great a branch of their trade, it must necessitate them to the establishment of manufactures. For if they were cut off from their foreign trade, they never could purchase in England the many things for the use or the ornament of life, which they have from thence. Besides this, the French, deprived of the provision and lumber of New England, must of necessity take every measure to be supplied from their own colonies, which would answer their purposes better, if they could accomplish it, at the same time that it would deprive the New England people of a large and profitable branch of their commerce. These points, and many more, were fully discussed upon both sides. The legislature took a middle course. They did not entirely prohibit the carrying of lumber to the French island; but they laid a considerable duty upon whatever rum, sugars. or molasses, they should import from thence; to enhance by this means the price of lumber and other necessa-

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ries to the French ; and, by laying them under difficulties, to ſet the Engliſh ſugar plantations, in ſome meaſure, upon an equal footing with thoſe of the French.

Though the paſſage to the French iſlands be ſuch a great way to the windward, as to bring them theſe commodities in a more tedious manner, and at a dearer rate, is it not much better that they ſhould have them cheap from us than dear from themſelves? Nor perhaps would even this difficulty, which is indeed much leſs than it is repreſented, bring down the French to the par of our ſugar colonies, loaded as they are with taxes, groaning under the preſſure of many grievances, and deformed by an infinite number of abuſes and enormities ; nor can they with reaſon or juſtice hope for a cure of the evils which they ſuffer, partly from errors of their own, and partly from miſtakes in England, at the expence of the trade of their ſiſter colonies on the continent of America, who are entirely guiltleſs of their ſufferings ; nor is it by reſtraints on the trade of their enemies, but by an effectual and judicious encouragement of their own, that they can hope to remedy theſe evils, and rival the French eſtabliſhments.

We cannot help here adding, that reſtraints upon trade are nice things ; and ought to be well conſidered. Great care ought to be taken in all ſuch how we ſacrifice the intereſts of one part of our territories to thoſe of another ; and it would be a miſtake of the moſt fatal conſequence, if we came to think that the ſhipping, ſeamen,

ſeamen, commodities, or wealth, of the Britiſh colonies, were not effectually the ſhipping, ſeamen, and wealth, of Great Britain herſelf. Sentiments of another kind have frequently done us miſchiefs; and there is great reaſon to fear, from the preſent ſituation of affairs, that many fatal evils of this kind are near at hand. The general plan of our management, with regard to the trade of our colonies, ought to be, to encourage in every one of them ſome ſeparate and diſtinct articles, ſuch as, not interfering, might enable them to trade with each other, and all to trade to advantage with their mother country. And then, where we have rivals in any branch of the trade carried on by our colonies, to enable them to ſend their goods to the foreign market directly; uſing, at the ſame time, the wiſe precaution which the French put in practice, to make the ſhips ſo employed take the Engliſh ports in their way home; for our great danger is, that they ſhould in that caſe make their returns in foreign manufactures, againſt which we cannot guard too carefully. This, and that they ſhould not go largely into manufactures interfering with ours, ought to be the only points at which our reſtrictions ſhould aim. Theſe purpoſes ought not to be compaſſed by abſolute prohibitions and penalties, which would be unpolitical and unjuſt, but by the way of diverſion, by encouraging them to fall into ſuch things as find a demand with ourſelves at home. By this means Great Britain and all its dependencies will have a

common

common intereſt, they will mutually play into each other's hands, and the trade, ſo diſperſed, will be of infinitely more advantage to us, than if all its ſeveral articles were produced and manufactured within ourſelves.

The trade of New England, in many of its branches, is clearly on the decline; and this circumſtance ought to intereſt us deeply; for very valuable is this colony, if it never ſent us any thing, nor took any thing from us, as it is the principal magazine which ſupplies our Weſt-Indies, from whence we draw ſuch vaſt advantages..

NEW YORK, NEW JERSEY, *and* PENSYLVANIA.

AT what time the Swedes and Dutch made their firſt eſtabliſhment in North America is not certainly known; but it was undoubtedly poſterior to our ſettlement in Virginia, and prior to that of New England. The Swedes, who were no conſiderable naval power, had hardly fixed the rudiments of a colony there, when they deſerted it. The inhabitants, without protection or aſſiſtance, were glad to enter into a coalition with the Dutch, who had ſettled there upon a better plan, and to ſubmit to the government of the States. The whole tract poſſeſſed or claimed by the two nations, whoſe two colonies were now grown into one, extended from the thirty-eighth to the forty-firſt degree

of

of latitude, all along the ſea coaſt. They called it Nova Belgia, or New Netherlands. It continued in their hands until the reign of Charles the ſecond.

The Dutch war then breaking out, in the year 1664, Sir Robert Car, with three thouſand men, was ſent to reduce it, which he did with ſo little reſiſtance, as not to gain him any great honour by the conqueſt. A little after, the Dutch, by way of repriſal, fell upon our colony of Surinam in South America, and conquered it after much the ſame oppoſition that we met in the New Netherlands. By the treaty of peace, which was ſigned at Breda, in 1667, it was agreed, that things ſhould remain in the ſtate they were at that time; Surinam to the Dutch, the New Netherlands to the Engliſh.

At that time, this was looked upon by many as a bad exchange; but it now appears, that we have made an excellent bargain; for, to ſay nothing of the great diſadvantage of having our colonies, as it were, cut in two by the intervention of a foreign territory, this is now one of the beſt-peopled and richeſt parts of our plantations, extremely uſeful to the others, and making very valuable returns to the mother country; whereas Surinam is comparatively a place of very ſmall conſequence, very unhealthy, and by no art to be made otherwiſe.

The New Netherlands were not long in our poſſeſſion before they were divided into diſtinct provinces, and laid aſide their former appella-

tion.

on. The north-eaſt part, which joined New ngland, was called NEW YORK, in com- liment to the duke of York, who had at firſt e grant of the whole territory.

This province is ſituated between forty and rty-ſix degrees of north latitude, and be- ween ſeventy-two and ſeventy-ſix of weſt ngitude, being about three hundred miles length, and one hundred and fifty in eadth. It is bounded by the rivers Hudſon nd Delaware, which divide it from New Jer- y and Penſylvania, on the ſouth and ſouth- eſt; by New England and the Atlantic Ocean, the eaſt and north-eaſt; and by Canada on e north-weſt. It comprehends within its mits Long Iſland, which lies to the ſouth of onnecticut, and is an iſland inferior to no rt of America in excellent ground for the aſturage of horſes, oxen, and ſheep, or the entiful produce of every ſort of grain.

The part of Nova Belgia, which lay along e ocean, between that and the river Dela- ar, from the ſouthern part of New York ite down to Maryland, was granted to George Carteret and others, and called EW JERSEY from him, becauſe he had, the family ſtill has, eſtates in the iſland of at name.

This province is ſituated between thirty ne and forty-three degrees of north latitude, between ſeventy-four and ſeventy-ſix of ſt longitude, being about one hundred and ty miles in length, and ſixty in breadth. is bounded by the river and bay of Delaware,

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on the weſt and ſouth-weſt; by the Atlantic Ocean, on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt; and by the Sound, (which ſeparates Staten iſland from the continent) and Hudſon's River, on the north.

PENSYLVANIA is ſituated between ſeventy-four and eighty-one degrees of weſt longitude, and between thirty-nine and forty-four of north latitude, being about three hundred miles in length, and two hundred and forty in breadth. It is bounded on the north by the country of the Iroquois, or Five Nations; on the eaſt by Delawar river, which divides it from the Jerſeys; and on the ſouth and weſt by Maryland.

This laſt territory was granted to the famous Mr. William Penn, the ſon of Sir William Penn the admiral, in the year 1680.

The three provinces of New York, New Jerſey, and Penſylvania, admit of no very remarkable difference in their ſoil and climate. In all theſe, and indeed in all our North American colonies, the land near the ſea is in general low, flat, and marſhy; at a conſiderable diſtance from the ſea, it ſwells into little hills, and then into great, even ridges of mountains, which hold their courſe, for the moſt part, north-eaſt, and ſouth-weſt.

The ſoil throughout theſe three provinces is in general extremely fruitful; abounding not only in its native grain, the Indian corn, but in all ſuch as have been naturalized there from Europe. They have wheat in ſuch abundance, and of ſo excellent a quality, that

few parts of the world, for the tract which is cultivated, exceed it in the one or the other of these particulars; not in barley, oats, rye, buck-wheat, and every sort of grain which we have here.

They have a great number of horned cattle, horses, sheep, and hogs. All our European poultry abound there; game of all kinds is wonderfully plenty; deer of several species; hares of a kind peculiar to America, but inferior in relish to ours; wild turkies, of a vast size and equal goodness, and a beautiful species of pheasants, only found in this country.

Every species of herbs or roots, which we force in our gardens, grows here with great ease; and every species of fruit; but some, as those of peaches and melons, in far greater perfection than we have them.

In their forests is great plenty of excellent timber, the oak, the ash, the beech, the chestnut, the cedar, and walnut, the cypress, the hickory, the sassafras, and the pine. In all parts of our plantations, comprehending New York to the northward, quite to the southern extremity, the woods are full of wild vines of three or four species, all different from those we have in Europe. But, whether from some fault in their nature, or in the climate, or the soil where they grow, or, what is much more probable, from a fault in the planters, they have yet produced no wine that deserves to be mentioned. It may be remarked in general of the timber of these provinces, that it is not so good for shipping as that of New England

and Nova Scotia. The further ſouthward you go, the timber becomes leſs compact, and rives eaſily; which property, as it makes it more uſeful for ſtaves, renders it leſs ſerviceable for ſhip building.

In all theſe provinces, but much the moſt largely in Penſylvania, they raiſe great quantities of flax, and hemp is a promiſing article; nor are they deficient in minerals. In New York, a good deal of iron is found. In New Jerſey, a very rich copper mine has been opened. There is no manner of doubt but in time, when the people come to multiply ſufficiently, and experience and want have made them ingenious in opening reſources for trade, theſe colonies will become as remarkable for uſeful metals as they now are for grain.

Theſe three provinces, as are all thoſe in North America, are extremely well watered. They have however obſerved in New England, that, as they clear the country, a vaſt number of little brooks are quite loſt, and the mills upon them by this loſs rendered uſeleſs. They even obſerve, that this cutting down of the woods has affected the river Connecticut itſelf, the largeſt in New England, and that it has grown diſtinguiſhably ſhallower. But whatever they have loſt in water, which, where there is ſuch a plenty, is no great loſs, has been amply compenſated by the great ſalubrity of the air, which has ariſen from the cultivation of the country.

As the climate and ſoil of the provinces of New York, New Jerſey, and Penſylvania, are

with very little variation, the ſame, ſo there is no difference in the commodities in which they trade, which are wheat, flour, barley, oats, Indian corn, peas, beef, pork, cheeſe, butter, cyder, beer, flax, hemp and flax ſeed, linſeed oil, fur and deer-ſkins, ſtaves, lumber, and iron.

We ſhall now proceed to deſcribe the city of New York, which was denominated New Amſterdam when the Dutch poſſeſſed it, but it has changed its name along with its maſters. This city is moſt commodiouſly ſituated for trade, upon an excellent harbour, in an iſland called Manahatton, about fourteen miles long, though not above one or two broad. This iſland lies juſt in the mouth of the river Hudſon, which diſcharges itſelf here after a long courſe. This is one of the nobleſt rivers in America. It is navigable upwards of two hundred miles, and the tide flows one hundred and fifty. The city of New York contains upwards of two thouſand houſes, and above twelve thouſand inhabitants, the deſcendants of Dutch and Engliſh.

It is well and commodiouſly built, extending a mile in length, and about half that in breadth, and has a very good aſpect from the ſea; but it is by no means properly fortified. The houſes are built of brick in the Dutch taſte; the ſtreets not regular, but clean and well paved. In the year 1770, the number of places for public worſhip in this city ſtood as follows:

Dutch Preſbyterians	3
Engliſh ditto	2
Scotch ditto	1
Epiſcopalians	3
French Refugees	1
Quakers	1
Baptiſts	1
Moravians	1
German Calvinſts	2
—— Lutherans	1
Methodiſts	1
Jews	1

Hence it ſhould ſeem needleſs to obſerve that all religions are tolerated here, without the leaſt reſtraint upon any one's conſcience.

The town has a very flouriſhing trade, and in which great profits are made. The merchants are wealthy, and the people in general moſt comfortably provided for, and with moderate labour. From the year 1749 to 1750 two hundred and thirty-two veſſels were entered in this port, and two hundred and eighty-ſix cleared outwards. In theſe veſſels were ſhipped ſix thouſand ſeven hundred and thirty-one tons of proviſions, chiefly flour, and a vaſt quantity of grain; of which we have no particular account. In the year 1755, the export of flax ſeed to Ireland amounted to twelve thouſand five hundred and twenty-eight hogſheads.

The inhabitants are between eighty and a hundred thouſand, the lower claſs eaſy, the better rich, and hoſpitable, and great free-

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dom of ſociety. In a word, this province yields to no part of America in the healthineſs of its air, and the fertility of its ſoil. It is much ſuperior in the great convenience of water carriage, which ſpeedily carries the product of the remoteſt farms to a certain and profitable market, and that at the ſlighteſt expence.

About one hundred and fifty miles from New York, upon the river Hudſon, is Albany; a town of not ſo much note for its number of houſes or inhabitants, as for the great trade which is carried on with the Indians. This trade takes off a great quantity of coarſe woollen goods, ſuch as ſtrouds and duffils; and with theſe, guns, hatchets, knives, hoes, kettles, powder and ſhot; beſides ſhirts and clothes ready made, and ſeveral other articles. Here it is that the treaties and other tranſactions between us and the Iroquois Indians are negociated. This nation, or combination of Five nations, united by an ancient and inviolable league amongſt themſelves, were the oldeſt, the moſt ſteady, and moſt effectual ally we have found amongſt the Indians.

This people, by their unanimity, firmneſs, military ſkill, and policy, have raiſed themſelves to be the greateſt and moſt formidable power in all America; they have reduced a vaſt number of nations, and brought under their power a territory twice as large as the kingdom of France; but they have not increaſed their ſubjects in proportion. As their

manner of warring is implacable and barbarous, they reign the lords of a prodigious deſert, inhabited only by a few ſcattered inſignificant tribes, whom they have permitted to live out of a contempt of their power, and who are all in the loweſt ſtate of ſubjection. And yet this once mighty and victorious nation, though it has always uſed the policy of incorporating with itſelf a great many of the priſoners they make in war, is in a very declining condition.

About ſixty years ago, it was computed that they had ten thouſand fighting men; at this day, they cannot raiſe fifteen hundred. So much have wars, epidemical diſeaſes, and the unnatural union of the vices of civilized nations with the manners of ſavages, reduced this once numerous people. But they are not only much leſſened at this day in their numbers, but in their diſpoſition to employ what numbers they have left in our ſervice. Amongſt other neglects, which we have no pleaſure in mentioning, and no hopes of ſeeing amended, this of inattention, or worſe treatment, of the Indians, is one, and a capital one. The Iroquois have lately had three other nations added to their confederacy, ſo that they ought now to be conſidered as eight; and, had the French continued their poſſeſſions on the continent, we ſhould, perhaps, have found their Indians our implacable enemies, as they ſeemed every day to lean more and more to the friendly, but artful, conduct of the French.

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Let us now proceed to enquire into the ſtate of NEW JERSEY. This province, by the perpetual diſputes which ſubſiſted between the people and the proprietaries, whilſt it continued a proprietary government, was kept for a long time in a very feeble ſtate; but within a few years it has begun to reap ſome of the advantages which it might have had earlier from the proper management of ſo fine a province and ſo advantageous a ſituation.

They raiſe very great quantities of grain at preſent, and are increaſed to near ſixty thouſand ſouls; but they have yet no town of any conſequence. Perth Amboy, which is their capital, has not upwards of two hundred houſes; and though the town has a very fine harbour, capable of receiving and ſecuring ſhips of great burthen, yet, as the people of New Jerſey have been uſed to ſend their produce to the markets of New York and Philadelphia, to which they are contiguous, they find it hard, as it always is in ſuch caſes, to draw the trade out of the old channel; for there the correſpondencies are fixed, the method of dealing eſtabliſhed, credits given, and a ready market for needy dealers, who in all countries are ſufficiently numerous; ſo that the trade of this town, which is the only town of any trade worth notice in New Jerſey, is ſtill inconſiderable; in the year 1751, only forty-one veſſels entered inwards, and only thirty-eight cleared out, in which were exported ſix thouſand four hundred and twenty four barrels of flour; one hundred and

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ſixty-eight thouſand weight of bread; three hundred and fourteen barrels of beef and pork; ſeventeen thouſand nine hundred and forty-one buſhels of grain; fourteen thouſand weight of hemp; with ſome butter, hams, beer, flax-ſeed, bar-iron, and lumber. Since that period, their trade has very little increaſed.

We ſhall conclude this account of New Jerſey with a curious deſcription of the black ſnake, and the bull frog, as we find it related by Profeſſor Kalm, in his entertaining Travels into North America.

"On the road from New Jerſey northward (ſays our author,) we ſaw a black ſnake, which was killed, and found it juſt five feet long. Catſby has deſcribed it and its qualities, and alſo drawn it. The full-grown black ſnakes are commonly about five feet long, but very ſlender; the thickeſt I ever ſaw, in the broadeſt part, hardly three inches thick; the back is black, ſhining, and ſmooth; the ſkin white and ſmooth; the belly whitiſh turning into blue, ſhining, and very ſmooth. I believe there are ſome varieties of this ſnake: one, which was nineteen inches long, had a hundred and eighty-ſix ſcales on the belly, and ninety-two half ſcales on the tail, which I found to be true by a repeated counting of the ſcales.

"The country abounds with black ſnakes. They are among the firſt that come out in ſpring, and often appear very early, if warm weather happens; but, if it grows cold again after

after that, they are quite frozen, and lie ſtiff and torpid on the ground, or on the ice: when taken in this ſtate and put before the fire, they revive in leſs than an hour's time. It has ſometimes happened, when the beginning of January is very warm, that they come out of their winter habitations. They commonly appear about the end of March, old ſtyle.

"This is the ſwifteſt of all the ſnakes which are to be found here, for it moves ſo quick that a dog can hardly catch it. It is therefore almoſt impoſſible for a man to eſcape it, if purſued: but happily its bite is neither poiſonous nor any way dangerous; many people have been bit by it in the woods, and have ſcarce felt any more inconvenience than if they had been wounded with a knife; the wounded place only remains painful for ſome time. The black ſnakes ſeldom do any harm, except in ſpring, when they copulate; but, if any body comes in their way at that time, they are ſo much vexed, as to purſue him as faſt as they can. If they meet with a perſon who is afraid of them, he is in great diſtreſs. I am acquainted with ſeveral people who have, on ſuch an occaſion, run ſo hard as to be quite out of breath, in endeavouring to eſcape the ſnake, which moved with the ſwiftneſs of an arrow after them. If a perſon thus purſued can muſter up courage to oppoſe the ſnake with a ſtick or any thing elſe, when it has either paſſed by him, or when he ſteps aſide to avoid it, it will turn back again, and ſeek a refuge in its ſwiftneſs. It is, however, ſometimes

times bold enough to run directly upon a man, and not to depart before it has received a good ſtroke. I have been aſſured by ſeveral that when it overtakes a perſon, who had tried to eſcape it, and who has not courage enough to oppoſe it, it winds round his feet, ſo as to make him fall down; it then bites him ſeveral times in the leg, or whatever part it can get hold of, and goes off again.

" I ſhall mention two circumſtances, which confirm what I have ſaid. During my ſtay in New York, Dr. Colden told me, that in the ſpring, 1748, he had ſeveral workmen at his country-ſeat, and among them one lately arrived from Europe, who of courſe knew very little of the qualities of the black ſnake. The other workmen ſeeing a great black ſnake copulating with its female, engaged the new comer to go and kill it, which he intended to do with a little ſtick. But, on approaching the place where the ſnakes lay, they perceived him, and the male in great wrath leaves his pleaſure to purſue the fellow with amazing ſwiftneſs; he little expected ſuch courage in the ſnake, and, flinging away his ſtick, began to run as faſt as he was able. The ſnake purſued, overtook him, and, twiſting ſeveral times round his feet, threw him down, and frightened him almoſt out of his ſenſes; he could not get rid of the ſnake, till he took a knife and cut it through in two or three places. The other workmen were rejoiced at this ſight, and laughed at it, without offering to help their companion.

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" Many people at Albany told me of an accident which happened to a young lady, who went out of town in ſummer, together with many other girls, attended by her negro. She ſat down in the wood, in a place where the others were running about, and, before she was aware, a black ſnake, being diſturbed in its amours, ran under her petticoats, and twiſted round her waiſt, ſo that ſhe fell backwards in a ſwoon, occaſioned by her fright, or by the compreſſion which the ſnake cauſed. The negro came up to her, and ſuſpecting that a black ſnake might have hurt her, on making uſe of a remedy to bring his lady to herſelf again, lifted up her cloaths, and really found the ſnake wound about her body as cloſe as poſſible; the negro was not able to tear it away, and therefore cut it, and the girl came to herſelf again; but ſhe conceived ſo great an averſion to the negro, that ſhe could not bear the ſight of him afterwards, and died of a conſumption.

" At other times of the year this ſnake is more apt to run away, than to attack people. However, I have heard it aſſerted frequently, that even in ſummer, when its time of copulation is paſt, it purſues people, eſpecially children, if it finds that they are afraid and run from it. Several people likewiſe aſſured me, from their own experience, that it may be provoked to purſue people, if they throw at it, and then run away. I cannot well doubt of this, as I have heard it ſaid by numbers of creditable people; but I could never ſucceed

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in provoking them. I ran always away o perceiving it, or flung ſomething at it, an then took to my heels, but I could never brin the ſnakes to purſue me; I know not for wha reaſon they ſhunned me, unleſs they took m for an artful ſeducer.

" Moſt of the people of this country aſcrib ed to this ſnake a power of faſcinating bird and ſquirrels. When the ſnake lies under tree, and has fixed his eyes on a bird or ſquirre above, it obliges them to come down, and g directly into its mouth. I cannot account fo this, for I never ſaw it done. However, have a liſt of more than twenty perſons, amon which are ſome of the moſt creditable people who have all unanimouſly, though living fa diſtant from each other, aſſerted the ſam thing; they aſſured me, upon their honour that they have ſeen (at ſeveral times) thes black ſnakes faſcinating ſquirrels and bird which ſat on the tops of trees, the ſnake lyin at the foot of the tree, with its eyes fixed upo the bird or ſquirrel, which ſits above it, an utters a doleful note: from which it is eaſy t conclude with certainty that it is about to b faſcinated, though you cannot ſee it. Th bird or ſquirrel runs up and down along th tree continuing its plantive ſong, and alway comes nearer the ſnake, whoſe eyes are un alterably fixed upon it. It ſhould ſeem as i theſe poor creatures endeavoured to eſcape th ſnake, by hopping or running up the tree but there appears to be a power which with holds them: they are forced downwards, and

each

ach time that they turn back, they approach earer their enemy, till they are at laſt forced o leap into its mouth, which ſtands wide open or that purpoſe.

" The black ſnakes kill the ſmaller ſpecies f frogs, and eat them. If they get at the ggs of poultry, or of other birds, they make oles in them, and ſuck the contents. When he hens are ſitting on the eggs, they creep nto the neſt, wind round the birds, ſtifle hem, and ſuck the eggs. Mr. Bartram aſ-erted, that he had often ſeen this ſnake creep p into the talleſt trees, after birds eggs, or oung birds, always with the head foremoſt, hen deſcending. A Swede told me, that a lack ſnake had once got the head of one of is hens in its mouth, and was wound ſeveral mes round the body, when he came and kil-d the ſnake. The hen was afterwards as well ever.

" This ſnake is very greedy of milk, and it difficult to keep it out, when it is once uſed go into a cellar where milk is kept. It has en ſeen eating milk out of the ſame diſh with ildren, without biting them, though they ten gave it blows with the ſpoon upon the ead, when it was over greedy. I never heard hiſſing. It can raiſe more than one half of body from the ground, in order to look out her. It ſkins every year; and its ſkin ſaid to be a remedy againſt the cramp, if ntinually worn about the body."

The bull-frog may alſo be added as a harmleſs animal, to which we are ſtrangers, and of which we have the enſuing deſcription from the ſame author.

" Bull-frogs are a large ſpecies of frogs which I had an opportunity both of hearing and ſeeing. As I was riding out, I heard roaring before me; and I thought it was a bull in the buſhes, on the other ſide of the dyke, though the ſound was rather more hoarſe than that of a bull. I was however afraid, that a bad goaring bull might be near me, though I did not ſee him; and I continued to think ſo till ſome few hours after, when I talked with ſome Swedes about the bull-frogs, and, by their account, I immediately found that I heard their voice; for the Swedes told me, that there were numbers of them in the dyke. I afterwards hunted for them. Of all the frogs in this country this is doubtleſs the greateſt. I am told, that towards autumn, as ſoon as the air begins to grow a little cool, they hide themſelves under the mud, which lies at the bottom of the ponds and ſtagnant water, and lie there torpid during winter. As ſoon as the weather grows mild, towards ſummer, they begin to get out of their holes, and croak. If the ſpring, that is, if the mild weather, begins early, they appear about the end of March old ſtyle; but, if it happens late, they lie under water till late in April.

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"Their places of abode are ponds, and bogs with ſtagnant water; they are never in any flowing water. When many of them croak together, they make an enormous noiſe. Their croak exactly reſembles the roaring of an ox or bull, which is ſomewhat hoarſe. They croak ſo loud, that two people talking by the ſide of a pond cannot underſtand each other. They croak all together; then ſtop a little, and begin again. It ſeems as if they had a captain among them: for, when he begins to croak, all the others follow; and, when he ſtops, the others are all ſilent. When this captain gives the ſignal for hopping, you hear a note like poop coming from him. In day-time they ſeldom make any great noiſe, unleſs the ſky is covered. But the night is their croaking-time; and when all is calm, you may hear them, though you are near a mile and a half off. When they croak, they commonly are near the ſurface of the water, under the buſhes, and have their heads out of the water. Therefore, by going ſlowly on, one may get cloſe up to them before they go away. As ſoon as they are quite under water, they think themſelves ſafe, though the water be very ſhallow.

"Sometimes they ſit at a good diſtance from the pond; but, as ſoon as they ſuſpect any danger, they haſten with great leaps into the water. They are very expert at hopping. A full-grown bull-frog takes near three yards at one hop. I have often been told the following ſtory by the old Swedes, which happened

here, at the time when the Indians lived with the Swedes. It is well known that the Indians are excellent runners: I have ſeen them, at governor Johnſon's, equal the beſt horſe in its ſwifteſt courſe, and almoſt paſs by it. Therefore, in order to try how well the bull-frogs could leap, ſome of the Swedes laid a wager with a young Indian, that he could not overtake the frog, provided it had two leaps beforehand. They carried a bull-frog, which they had caught in a pond, upon a field, and burnt his back-ſide; the fire, and the Indian, who had endeavoured to be cloſely up with the frog, had ſuch an effect upon the animal, that it made its long hops acroſs the field, as faſt as it could. The Indian began to purſue the frog with all his might at the proper time: the noiſe he made in running, frightened the poor frog; probably it was afraid of being tortured with fire again, and therefore it redoubled its leaps, and by that means it reached the pond before the Indian could overtake it.

"I have not obſerved that they bite when they are held in the hands, though they have little teeth; when they are beaten they cry out almoſt like children. I was told that ſome eat the thighs and the hind legs, and that they are very palatable.

"We are ſtill however left at a loſs as to the full ſize of this alarming animal, unleſs we turn to Linnæus or Cateſby, to which he refers for the characters. It ſhould ſeem as if this was the frog that gave the idea to the fa-

buliſt,

buliſt, of making him endeavour to emulate the ox in ſize, as he already does in voice."

It may not be amiſs, before we proceed to the deſcription of Penſylvania, to give ſome account of Mr. William Penn, and the principles on which he ſettled the colony.

A notion has of late prevailed, that proprietary governments are a ſort of check to the growth of the colonies which they ſuperintended. It is certain, that abuſes have been, and ſtill do ſubſiſt, in that ſpecies of government; and abuſes of as bad a kind may perhaps be found, by perſons of no great penetration, in all our governments; but if there were any truth in this obſervation, the province of Penſylvania would prove an illuſtrious exception to it.

Mr. William Penn, in his capacity of a divine and of a moral writer, is certainly not of the firſt rank; and his works are of no great eſtimation, except amongſt his own people; but, in his capacity of a legiſlator and the founder of ſo flouriſhing a commonwealth, he deſerves great honour amongſt all mankind; a commonwealth, which, in the ſpace of about eighty years, from a beginning of a few hundreds of refugees and indigent men, has grown to be a numerous and flouriſhing people; a people, who, from a perfect wilderneſs, have brought their territory to a ſtate of great cultivation, and filled it with wealthy and populous towns; and who, in the midſt of a fierce and lawleſs race of men, have preſerved themſelves, with unarmed hands and paſſive prin-

ciples, by the rules of moderation and juſtice, better than any other people has done by policy and arms.

Mr. Penn, when, for his father's ſervices, and by his own intereſt at court, he obtained the inheritance of this country and its government, ſaw that he could make the grant of value to him only by rendering the country as agreeable to all people, as eaſe and good government could make it. To this purpoſe, he began by purchaſing the ſoil, at a very low rate indeed, from the original poſſeſſors, to whom it was of very little uſe. By this cheap act of juſtice at the beginning, he made all his dealings for the future the more eaſy, by prepoſſeſſing the Indians with a favourable opinion of him and his deſigns.

The other part of his plan, which was, to people this country after he had ſecured the poſſeſſion of it, he ſaw much facilitated by the uneaſineſs of his brethern the quakers in England, who, refuſing to pay tythes and other church dues, ſuffered a great deal from the ſpiritual courts. Their high opinion of and regard for the man, who was an honour to their new church, made them the more ready to follow him over the vaſt ocean into an untried climate and country. Neither was he himſelf wanting in any thing which could encourage them. For he expended large ſums in tranſporting and finding them in all neceſſaries; and, not aiming at a certain profit, he diſpoſed of his land at a very light purchaſe. But what crowned all was, that noble

charter

charter of privileges, by which he made them as free as any people in the world; and which has ſince drawn ſuch vaſt numbers, of ſo many different perſuaſions and ſuch various countries, to put themſelves under the protection of his laws.

He made the moſt perfect freedom, both religious and civil, the baſis of this eſtabliſhment; and this has done more towards the ſettling of the province, and towards the ſettling of it in a ſtrong and permanent manner, than the wiſeſt regulations could have done upon any other plan. All perſons who profeſs to believe one God, are freely tolerated; thoſe who believe in Jeſus Chriſt, of whatever denomination, are not excluded from employments and poſts.

This great man lived to ſee an extenſive country called after his own name; he lived to ſee it peopled by his own wiſdom, the people free and flouriſhing, and the moſt flouriſhing people in it of his own perſuaſion; he lived to lay the foundations of a ſplendid and wealthy city; he lived to ſee it promiſe every thing from the ſituation which he himſelf had choſen, and the encouragement which he himſelf had given it: he lived to ſee all this; but he died in — the Fleet-priſon. It is but juſt, that in ſuch a ſubject, we ſhould allot a little room, to do honour to thoſe great men, whoſe virtue and generoſity have contributed to the peopling of the earth, and to the freedom and happineſs of mankind; who have preferred the intereſt of a remote poſterity,

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and times unknown, to their own fortunes, and to the quiet and ſecurity of their own lives. Now, Great Britain, and all America, reap great benefits from his labours and his loſſes; and his poſterity have a vaſt eſtate out of the quit-rents of that province, whoſe eſtabliſhment was the ruin of their predeceſſor's moderate fortune.

Having paid this ſhort but juſt tribute to merit, we ſhall proceed to the deſcription of PENSYLVANIA, which is inhabited by upwards of two hundred and fifty thouſand people, half of whom are Germans, Swedes, or Dutch. Here you ſee the quakers, churchmen, calviniſts, lutherans, catholics, methodiſts, meniſts, moravians, independents, the anabaptiſts, and the dumplers, a ſort of German ſect, that live in ſomething like a religious ſociety, wear long beards, and a habit reſembling that of friars. In ſhort, the diverſity of people, religions, nations, and languages here, is prodigious, and the harmony in which they live together no leſs edifying. For, though every man, who wiſhes well to religion, is ſorry to ſee the diverſity which prevails, and would by all humane and honeſt methods endeavour to prevent it; yet, when once the evil has happened, when there is no longer an union of ſentiments, it is glorious to preſerve at leaſt an union of affections; it is a beautiful proſpect, to ſee men take and give an equal liberty; to ſee them live, if not as belonging to the ſame church, yet to the ſame Chriſtian religion; and if not to the

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me religion, yet to the ſame great fraternity mankind.

We do not obſerve that the quakers, who d, and who ſtill have in a great meaſure, e power in their hands, have made uſe of it any ſort to perſecute; except in the ſingle ſe of George Keith, whom they firſt impri-ned, and then baniſhed out of the province. his Keith was originally a miniſter of the urch of England, then a quaker, and after-ards returned to his former miniſtry. But hilſt he remained with the friends, he was a oſt troubleſome and litigious man; was for uſhing the particularities of quakeriſm to yet ore extravagant lengths, and for making new finements, even where the moſt enthuſiaſtic ought they had gone far enough; which ſh and turbulent conduct raiſed ſuch a ſtorm, ſhook the church he then adhered to, to e very foundations. This little ſally into tolerance, as it is a ſingle inſtance, and with reat provocation, ought by no means to be mputed to the principles of the quakers, con-dering the ample and humane latitude they ave allowed in all other reſpects.

It was certainly a very right policy to en-ourage the importation of foreigners into enſylvania, as well as into our other colo-ies. By this we are great gainers, without ny diminution of the inhabitants of Great ritain. But it has been frequently obſerved, nd, as it ſhould ſeem, very juſtly complained f, that they are left ſtill foreigners, and ikely to continue ſo for many generations;

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as they have ſchools taught, books printed, and even the common news paper in their own language; by which means, and as they poſſeſs large tracts of the country without any intermixture of Engliſh, there is no appearance of their blending and becoming one people with us.

This certainly is a great irregularity, and the greater, as theſe foreigners, by their induſtry, frugality, and a hard way of living, in which they greatly exceed our people, have in a manner thruſt them out in ſeveral places, ſo as to threaten the colony with the danger of being wholly foreign in language, manners, and perhaps even inclinations. In the year 1750, were imported into Penſylvania and its dependencies four thouſand three hundred and ſeventeen Germans, whereas of Britiſh and Iriſh but one thouſand arrived.

But we by no meaas think that this ſort of tranſplantations ought to be diſcouraged; we only obſerve, along with others, that the manner of their ſettlement ought to be regulated, and means ſought to have them naturalized in reality.

The troubles in the laſt war very unhappily reverſed the ſyſtem ſo long purſued, and with ſuch great ſucceſs, in this part of the world. The Penſylvanians ſuffered ſeverely by the incurſions of the ſavage Americans as well as their neighbours; but the quakers could not be prevailed upon, by what did not directly affect thoſe of their own communion (for they were out of the way of miſchief in the more

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ettled parts,) to relinquiſh their pacific prin-
iples; for which reaſon a conſiderable op-
oſition, in which, however, we muſt do the
uakers the juſtice to obſerve, they were not
nanimous, was made, both within their aſ-
embly as well as without doors, againſt grant-
ng any money to carry on the war; and the
ame, or a more vigorous oppoſition, was
ade againſt paſſing a militia bill. A bill of
his kind at laſt paſſed, but ſcarcely ſuch as
he circumſtance of the country and the exi-
ences of the times required. It may per-
aps appear an error to have placed ſo great a
art of the government in the hands of men,
ho hold principles directly oppoſite to its end
nd deſign. The quakers, as a peaceable, in-
uſtrious, honeſt people, cannot be too much
heriſhed.

In the province of Penſylvania there are ſo
any good towns, even exceeding the capitals
f ſome other provinces, that nothing could
xcuſe our paſſing them by, had not Philadel-
hia drawn our attention wholly to itſelf.
his city ſtands upon a tongue of land, im-
ediately at the confluence of two fine rivers,
e Delawar and the Schulkil. It is diſpoſed
the form of an oblong, deſigned to extend
o miles from river to river; but the build-
gs do not extend above a mile and a half on
e weſt ſide of Delawar in length, and not
ore than half a mile where the town is
oadeſt. The longeſt ſtretch, when the ori-
nal plan can be fully executed, is to com-
ſe eight pareliel ſtreets, all of two miles in
length;

length; theſe are to be interſected by ſixte
others, each in length a mile, broad, ſpacio
and even, with proper ſpaces left for t
public buildings, churches, and marke
places. In the center is a ſquare of ten acre
round which moſt of the public buildings a
diſpoſed. The two principal ſtreets of t
city are each one hundred feet wide, and m
of the houſes have a ſmall garden and orchar
from the rivers are cut ſeveral canals, equal
agreeable and beneficial.

The quays are ſpacious and fine; the pri
cipal quay is two hundred feet wide, and
this a veſſel of five hundred tons may lay h
broadſide. The warehouſes are large, num
rous and commodious, and the docks for ſhi
building every way well adapted to their pu
poſes. A great number of veſſels have be
built here; twenty have been upon the ſtoc
at a time. The city contains, excluſive
warehouſes and outhouſes, about two thouſa
houſes; moſt of them of brick, and w
built; it is ſaid, there are ſeveral of the
worth four or five thouſand pounds.

The inhabitants are now about ~~thirte~~
thouſand; and there are in this city a gr
number of very wealthy merchants; which
no way ſurpriſing, when we conſider the gr
trade which it carries on with the Engli
Spaniſh, and Dutch colonies in Americ
with the Azores, the Canaries, and the M
deria iſlands; with Great Britain and Irelan
with Spain, Portugal and Holland, and

great profits which are made in many branches of their commerce.

Beſides the quantity of all kinds of the produce of this province which is brought down the rivers Delawar and Schulkil (the former of which is navigable, for veſſels of one ſort or other, more than two hundred miles above Philadelphia) the Dutch employ between eight and nine thouſand waggons, drawn each by four horſes, in bringing the product of their farms to this market. So long ſince as the year 1749, three hundred and three veſſels entered inwards at this port, and two hundred and ninety-one cleared outwards. There are, at the other ports of this province, cuſtom-houſe officers; but the foreign trade in theſe places is very inconſiderable.

The city of Philadelphia, though, as it may be judged, far from compleating the original plan, yet, ſo far as it is built, is carried on conformable to it, and increaſes in the number and beauty of its buildings every day. And as for the province, of which this city is the capital, there is no part of Britiſh America in a more growing condition. In ſome years, more people have tranſported themſelves into Penſylvania, than into all the other ſettlements together.

In 1729, ſix thouſand two hundred and eight perſons came to ſettle here as paſſengers or ſervants, four fifths of whom at leaſt were from Ireland. In ſhort, this province has increaſed ſo greatly from the time of its firſt eſtabliſhment, that, whereas lands were given

by Mr. Penn, the founder of the colony, at the rate of twenty pounds for a thouſand acres, reſerving only a ſhilling every hundred acres for quit-rent, and this in ſome of the beſt ſituated parts of the province; yet now, at a great diſtance from navigation, land is granted at twelve pounds the hundred acres, and a quit-rent of four ſhillings reſerved.

The Penſylvanians are an induſtrious and hardy people; they are moſt of them ſubſtantial, though but a few of the landed people can be conſidered as rich; but they are all well lodged, well fed, and, for their condition, well clad too; and this at the more eaſy rate, as the inferior people manufacture moſt of their own wear, both linens and woollens.

VIRGINIA.

THIS province is ſituated between ſeventy-five and ninety degrees of weſt longitude, and between thirty-ſix and forty degrees of north latitude, being about ſeven hundred and fifty miles in length, and two hundred and forty in breadth. It is bounded on the north-eaſt by the river Patowmac, which divides it from Maryland; on the eaſt, by the Atlantic Ocean; on the ſouth, by Carolina; and on the weſt, by the Miſſiſippi.

The whole face of the country is ſo extremely low towards the ſea, that, when you come even within fifteen fathom ſoundings, you

you can hardly diſtinguiſh land from the maſt-head. However, all this coaſt of America has one uſeful particularity, that you know your diſtance exactly by the ſoundings, which uniformly and gradually diminiſh as you approach the land. The trees appear as if they roſe out of the water, and afford the ſtranger a very uncommon, and not a diſagreeable view.

In ſailing to Virginia or Maryland, you paſs a ſtrait, between two points of land, called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a paſſage into the bay of Cheſapeak, one of the largeſt and ſafeſt bays perhaps in the world; for it enters the country near three hundred miles from the ſouth to the north, having the eaſtern ſide of Maryland, and a ſmall portion of Virginia on the ſame peninſula, to cover it from the Atlantic Ocean.

This bay is about eighteen miles broad for a conſiderable way, and ſeven where it is narroweſt, the waters in moſt places being nine fathom deep. Through its whole extent, it receives both on the eaſtern and weſtern ſide, a vaſt number of fine navigable rivers. Not to mention thoſe of Maryland, from the ſide of Virginia, it receives James river, York river, the Rappahannock, and the Potowmack. All theſe great rivers, in the order they are ſet down from ſouth to north, diſcharge themſelves, with ſeveral ſmaller ones, into the bay of Cheſapeak; and they are all not only navigable themſelves for very large veſſels a prodigious way into the country, but have

ſo many creeks, and receive ſuch a number of ſmall navigable rivers, as render the communication of all parts of this country infinitely more eaſy than that of any country, without exception, in the world.

The Potowmack is navigable for near two hundred miles, being nine miles broad at its mouth, and for a vaſt way not leſs than ſeven. The other three are navigable upwards of eighty, and in the windings of their ſeveral courſes, approach one another ſo nearly, that the diſtance between one and the other is in ſome parts not more than ten, ſometimes not above five miles; whereas in others there is fifty miles ſpace between each of theſe rivers. The planters load and unload veſſels of great burden each at his own door; which, as their commodities are bulky, and of ſmall value in proportion to their bulk, is a very fortunate circumſtance, elſe they could never afford to ſend their tobacco to market low as they ſell it, and charged, as it is in England, with a duty of ſix times its original value.

The climate and ſoil of Virginia were undoubtedly much heightened in the firſt deſcriptions, for political reaſons; but, after making all the neceſſary abatements which experience ſince taught us, we ſtill find it a moſt excellent country. The heats in ſummer are exceſſively great, but not without the allay of refreſhing ſea breezes. The weather is changeable, and the changes ſudden and violent. Their winter froſts come on without the leaſt warning. After a warm day, towards the ſetting in of

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the winter, so intense a cold often succeeds, as to freeze over the broadest and deepest of their great rivers in one night; but these frosts, as well as their rains, are rather violent than of long continuance. They have frequent and terrible thunder and lightening, but it does rarely any mischief. In general the sky is clear, and the air thin, pure, and penetrating.

The soil in the low grounds of Virginia is a dark fat mould, which, for many years, without any manure, yields plentifully whatever is committed to it.

The soil, as you leave the rivers, becomes light and sandy, is sooner exhausted than the low country, but is yet of a warm and generous nature, which, helped by a kindly sun, yields tobacco and corn extremely well. There is no better wheat than what is produced in this province and Maryland; but the culture of tobacco employs all their attention, and almost all their hands; so that they scarcely cultivate wheat enough for the use of themselves.

From the climate and the soil we have described, it may be easily judged in what excellence and plenty every sort of fruit is found in Virginia. Their forests are full of timber trees of all kinds; and their plains are covered for almost the whole year with a prodigious number of flowers, and flowering shrubs, of colours so rich, and of a scent so fragrant, that they occasioned the name of Florida to be originally given to this country.

This country produces ſeveral medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the ſnake root; and of late the celebrated ginſeng of the Chineſe has been there diſcovered.

Hogs and horned cattle have multiplied almoſt beyond belief, though at the firſt ſettlement the country was utterly deſtitute of theſe animals. The meat of the former is as much below the fleſh of our oxen, as that of the latter exceeds that of our hogs. The animals natural to the country are deer, of which there are great numbers; a ſort of panther or tiger; bears, wolves, foxes, racoons, ſquirrels, wild cats, and one very uncommon animal called the Opoſſum. This creature is about the ſize of a cat, and, beſides the belly which it has in common with all others, has a falſe one beneath it, with a pretty large aperture at the end towards the hinder legs. Within this bag or belly, on the uſual parts of the common belly, are a number of teats; upon theſe, when the female of this creature conceives, the young are formed, and there they hang like fruit upon the ſtalk, until they grow in bulk and weight to their appointed ſize; then they drop off, and are received in the falſe belly, from which they go out at pleaſure, and in which they take refuge when any danger threatens them.

The Virginians have all our ſorts of tame and wild fowl in equal perfection, and ſome of which we have not; and a vaſt number of birds of various kinds, valuable for their beauty or their note. The white owl of Virginia is far

far larger than the ſpecies which we have, and is all over of a bright ſilver-coloured plumage, except one black ſpot upon his breaſt; they have the nightingale called from the country, a moſt beautiful one, whoſe feathers are crimſon and blue; the mocking bird, thought to excel all others in his own note, and imitating the notes of every one; the rock bird, very ſociable, and his ſociety very agreeable by the ſweetneſs of his muſic; the humming bird, the ſmalleſt of all the winged creation, and the moſt beautiful, all arrayed in ſcarlet, green and gold. This bird is ſaid to live by licking off the dew that adheres to the flowers: he is too delicate to be brought alive into England.

The ſea-coaſts and rivers of Virginia abound not only in ſeveral of the ſpecies of fiſh known in Europe, but in moſt of thoſe kinds which are peculiar to America. The reptiles are many; it were tedious to enumerate all the kinds of ſerpents bred here; the rattle ſnake is the principal, and too well known in general to need any deſcription here.

The many advantages derived from navigation, and the ſcarcity of handicraftſmen, have rendered all the attempts of government to eſtabliſh towns in Virginia ineffectual. James's town, which was anciently the capital, is dwindled into an inſignificant village; and Williamſburg, though the capital at preſent, the ſeat of the governor, the place of holding the aſſembly and courts of juſtice, and a college for the ſtudy of arts and ſciences, is

yet

yet but a ſmall town. However, in this town are the beſt public buildings in America. The college, one hundred and thirty-five feet long in front, reſembling Chelſea hoſpital; the capital directly facing it, at the other end, of the deſign of a noble ſtreet, not unlike the college in the faſhion and the ſize of the building, where the aſſembly and the courts of juſtice are held, and the public offices kept; and the church, in the form of a croſs, is large and well ornamented. The town of Norfolk was growing into ſome conſequence, when the unhappy troubles in that continent put an end to its riſing grandeur. It was reduced to aſhes by the fire of the Engliſh men of war, on the firſt day of January, 1776. The following is the eſtimate of the rents, for the laſt three years, of the houſes and warehouſes in that town. For the year 1773, eight thouſand pounds; for 1774, nine thouſand three hundred and thirteen pounds; and for the year 1775, about ten thouſand pounds.

The principal and great ſtaple commodity of this country, as well as of Maryland, is tobacco. This plant is aboriginal in America, and of very ancient uſe, though neither ſo generally cultivated nor ſo well manufactured as it has been ſince the coming of the Europeans. When at its juſt height, it is as tall as an ordinary ſized man; the ſtalk is ſtrait, hairy, and clammy; the leaves alternate, of a faded yellowiſh green, and towards the lower part of the plant of a great ſize.

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The ſeeds of tobacco are firſt ſown in beds, from whence they are tranſplanted, the firſt rainy weather, into a ground diſpoſed into little hillocks like an hop garden. In a month's time from their tranſplantation, they become a foot high: they then top them, and prune off the lower leaves, and with great attention clean them from weeds and worms twice a week; in about ſix weeks after, they attain to their full growth, and they begin then to turn browniſh. By theſe marks they judge the tobacco to be ripe.

They cut down the plants as faſt as they ripen, heap them up, and let them lie a night to ſweat; the next day they carry them to the tobacco houſe, which is built to admit as much air as is conſiſtent with keeping out rain, where they are hung ſeparately to dry, for four or five weeks; then they take them down in moiſt weather, for elſe they would crumble to duſt. After this they are laid upon ſticks, and covered up cloſe to ſweat for a week or two longer; the ſervants ſtrip and ſort them, the top being the beſt, the bottom the worſt tobacco: then they make them up in hogſheads, or form them into rolls. Wet ſeaſons muſt be carefully laid hold on for all this work, elſe the tobacco will not be ſufficiently pliable.

There are two ſorts of tobacco; the firſt is called Oranokoe, from Maryland and the northern parts of Virginia; this is ſtrong and hot in the mouth, but it ſells very well in the markets of Holland, Germany and the North.

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The other ſort is called ſweet-ſcented, the beſt of which is from James's and York rivers, in the ſouthern parts of Virginia.

There is no commodity to which the revenue is ſo much obliged as to this. It produces a vaſt ſum, and yet appears to lay but a very inconſiderable burden upon the people in England; all the weight in reality falls upon the planter, who is kept down by the lowneſs of the original price; and as we have two provinces which deal in the ſame commodity, if the people of Virginia were to take meaſures to ſtraiten the market and raiſe the price, thoſe of Maryland would certainly take the advantage of it; the people of Virginia would take the ſame advantage of thoſe of Maryland in a like caſe. They have no proſpect of ever bettering their condition; and they are the leſs able to endure it, as they live in general luxuriouſly, and to the full extent of their fortunes. Therefore any failure in the ſale of their goods brings them heavily in debt to the merchants in London, who get mortgages on their eſtates, which are conſumed to the bone, with the canker of an eight per cent. uſury.

But, however, the planters may complain of the tobacco trade, the revenue flouriſhes by it, for, if we include the province of Maryland with that of Virginia, and abide by the moſt moderate calculations, we ſhall find that they export, of tobacco alone, to the annual amount of ſeven hundred and ſixty-eight thouſand pounds into Great Britain. This, at eight

pounds

pounds per hogſhead, makes the number of hogſheads amount to ninety-ſix thouſand: of theſe, it is computed, about thirteen thouſand five hundred hogſheads are conſumed at home, the duty on which, at twenty-ſix pounds one ſhilling per hogſhead, comes to three hundred and fifty-one thouſand ſix hundred and ſeventy-five pounds. The remaining eighty-two thouſand five hundred hogſheads, are exported by our merchants to different countries in Europe, and their value returned to Great Britain. The advantages of this trade appear by the bare mention of it. It may not be improper to add, that this ſingle branch employs three hundred and thirty ſail of ſhips, and three thouſand nine hundred and ſixty ſeamen. Not only our wealth therefore, but the very ſinews of our ſtrength, are powerfully braced by it. The other commodities of theſe colonies, of which naval ſtores, wheat, Indian corn, iron in pigs and bars, are the moſt conſiderable, make the whole exportation, at an average of three years, amount to one million and forty thouſand pounds. The exports of Great Britain, the ſame as to our other colonies, at a like average, come to eight hundred and ſixty-five thouſand pounds.

The number of white people in Virginia, is computed at between ſixty and ſeventy thouſand; and they are growing every day more numerous, by the migration of the Iriſh, who, not ſucceeding ſo well in Penſylvania as the more frugal and induſtrious Germans, ſell their lands in that province to the latter, and take

take up new ground in the remote countries in Virginia, Maryland, and North Carolina. Theſe are chiefly preſbyterians from the Northern part of Ireland, who in America are generally called Scotch Iriſh. In Virginia there are likewiſe ſettled a conſiderable number of French refugees; but much the larger part of the inhabitants are the negroe ſlaves, who cannot be much fewer than a hundred thouſand ſouls; they annually import into the two tobacco colonies between three and four thouſand of theſe ſlaves.

The negroes here do not ſtand in need of ſuch vaſt recruits as the Weſt-India ſtock; they rather increaſe than diminiſh; a bleſſing derived from a more moderate labour, better food, and a more healthy climate. The inhabitants of Virginia are a chearful, hoſpitable, and many of them a genteel, though ſomething vain and oſtentatious people; they are for the greater part of the eſtabliſhed church of England, nor until lately did they tolerate any other.

Let us now proceed to enquire into the firſt attempts to ſettle Virginia, which is the moſt ancient of our colonies; though ſtrictly ſpeaking, the firſt attempts to ſettle a colony were not made in Virginia, but in that part of North Carolina which immediately borders upon it.

Sir Walter Raleigh, the moſt extraordinary genius of his own or perhaps any other time, a penetrating ſtateſman, an accompliſhed courtier, a deep ſcholar, a fine writer, a great

ſoldier,

oldier, and one of the ableſt ſeamen in the world; this vaſt genius, that pierced ſo far and un through ſo many things, was of a fiery xcentric kind, which led him into daring exeditions and uncommon projects, which, not eing underſtood by a timid prince, and enied and hated by the rivals he had in ſo many ays of life, ruined him at laſt. In perſon, e ran infinite riſks in Guiana in ſearch of old mines; and when this country was firſt iſcovered, he looked through the work of an ge at one glance, and ſaw how advantageous might be made to the trade of England.

He was the firſt man in England who had a ght conception of the advantages of ſettlents abroad; he was then the only perſon ho had a thorough inſight into trade, and ho ſaw clearly the proper methods of proting it. He applied to court, and got toether a company, which was compoſed of veral perſons of diſtinction and ſeveral emient merchants, who agreed to open a trade nd ſettle a colony in that part of the world, hich, in honour of queen Elizabeth, he cald Virginia. Raleigh had too much buſineſs pon his hands at court, and found too few to cond him in his deſigns, to enable him to pport the eſtabliſhment with the ſpirit in hich he began it.

If ever any deſign had an ominous beginng, and ſeemed to forbid any attempts for rrying it on, it was that of the firſt ſettlent of Virginia. Near half of the firſt co-

lony was deſtroyed by the ſavages; and th reſt, conſumed and worn down by fatigue an famine, deſerted the country, and returne home in deſpair. The ſecond colony was cu off, to a man, in a manner unknown; bu they were ſuppoſed to be deſtroyed by the In dians. The third had the ſame diſmal fate and the fourth, quarrelling among themſelves neglecting their agriculture to hunt for gold and provoking the Indians by their inſolen and unguarded behaviour, loſt ſeveral of thei people, and were returning, the poor remain of them, in a famiſhing and deſperate condi tion, to England, when juſt in the mouth o Cheſapeak bay they met the lord Delawar with a ſquadron loaded with proviſion, an every thing for their relief and defence, wh perſuaded them to return.

This nobleman travelled with as much zea and aſſiduity to cheriſh and ſupport the frowar infancy of this unpromiſing colony, as ſom have uſed in its better times for purpoſes o another kind. Regardleſs of his life, and in attentive to his fortune, he entered upon thi long and dangerous voyage, and accepted thi barren province, which had nothing of government but its anxieties and its cares merely for the ſervice of his country: he ha no other reward than that retired and inwar ſatisfaction, which a good mind feels in in dulging its own propenſity to virtue, and th juſt honours which the lateſt poſterity will tak a pleaſure in beſtowing upon thoſe, wh

prefer the intereſt of poſterity to their own.

After he had prevailed upon the people to return, he comforted them under their miſfortunes, he pointed out their cauſes, and uniting the tenderneſs of a father with the ſteady ſeverity of a magiſtrate, he healed their diviſions, and reconciled them to authority and government, by making them feel by his conduct what a bleſſing it could be made. When he had ſettled the colony within itſelf, his next care was to put them upon a proper footing with regard to the Indians, whom he found very haughty and aſſuming on account of the late miſerable ſtate of the Engliſh; but by ſome well-timed and vigorous ſteps, he humbled them, ſhewed he had power to chaſtiſe them, and courage to exert that power; and, after having awed them into very peaceable diſpoſitions, and ſettled his colony in a very growing condition, he retired home for the benefit of his health, which by his conſtant attention to buſineſs and the air of an uncultivated country, had been impaired; but he left his ſon, with the ſpirit of his father, his deputy; and Sir Thomas Gates, and Sir George Summers, the honourable George Piercy, Sir Ferdinand Wenman, and Mr. Newport, for his council. Theſe, with other perſons of rank and fortune, attended him on this expedition, which gave a credit to the colony.

Though there are in England many young gentlemen of fortunes diſproportioned to their

rank, I fear we ſhould not ſee the names of ſo many of them engaged in an expedition, which had no better appearance than this had at that time. Lord Delawar did not forget the colony on his return to England; but, conſidering himſelf as nearer the fountain head, thought it his duty to turn the ſpring of the royal favour more copiouſly upon the province which he ſuperintended.

For eight years together, he was indefatigable in doing every thing that could tend to the peopling, the ſupport, and the good government of this ſettlement; and he died in the purſuit of the ſame object in his voyage to Virginia, with a large ſupply of people, cloathing and goods.

It is one of the moſt neceſſary, and I am ſure it is one of the moſt pleaſing parts of this deſign to do juſtice to the names of thoſe men, who, by their greatneſs of mind, their wiſdom and their goodneſs, have brought into the pale of civility and religion theſe rude and uncultivated parts of the globe; who could diſcern the rudiments of a future people, wanting only time to be unfoulded in the ſeed; who could perceive, amidſt the loſſes, diſappointments and expences of a beginning colony, the great advantages to be derived to their country from ſuch undertakings; and who could purſue them in ſpite of the malignity and narrow wiſdom of the world. The ancient world had its Oſiris and Erichthonius, who taught them the uſe of grain; their Bacchus, who inſtructed them in the culture of the

the vine; and their Orpheus and Linus, who firſt built towns and formed civil ſocieties. The people of America will not fail, when time has made things venerable, when an intermixture of fable has moulded uſeful truths into popular opinions, and when the preſent unhappy diſturbances ſhall ceaſe, to mention with equal gratitude, and perhaps ſimilar heightening circumſtances, her Columbus, her Caſtro, her Gaſca, her De Poincy, her Delawar, her Baltimore, and her Penn.

Under the protection of this noble and generous patron, lord Delawar, the colony of Virginia was ſo faſt rooted, that it was enabled to ſtand two terrible ſtorms; two maſſacres made by the Indians, in which the whole colony was nearly cut off; and to ſubdue that people, ſo as to put it utterly out of their power for many years afterwards to give them the leaſt diſturbance. In the fatal troubles, which brought Charles the firſt to the block, and overturned the conſtitution of England, many of the cavaliers fled for refuge to this colony, which, by the general diſpoſition of the inhabitants, and the virtue of Sir William Berkley, held out for the crown, until the parliament, rather by ſtratagem than force, reduced them. And what is remarkable, if it may be depended upon with any certainty, they depoſed Cromwell's governor, ſet up Sir William Berkley again, and declared for king Charles the ſecond, a good while even before the news of Oliver's death could arrive in America.

After the Reſtoration, there is nothing very intereſting in their hiſtory, except that ſoon after, a ſort of rebellion aroſe in the province, from miſmanagements in the government, from the decay of their trade, and from exorbitant grants inconſiderately made, which included the ſettled property of many people; theſe grievances raiſed a general diſcontent amongſt the planters, which was fomented and brought to blaze out into an actual war, by a young gentleman whoſe name was Bacon. He was an agreeable man, of a graceful preſence, and winning carriage. He had been bred to the law, had a lively and fluent expreſſion, fit to ſet off a popular cauſe, and to influence men who were ready to hear whatever could be ſaid to colour in a proper manner what was already ſtrongly drawn by their own feelings.

This man, by a ſpecious, or perhaps a real, though ill-judged regard for the public good, finding the governor ſlow in his preparations againſt the Indians, who were at that time ravaging the frontiers of the province, took up arms, without any commiſſion, to act againſt the enemy. When he had ſufficient force for this purpoſe, he found himſelf in a condition not only to act againſt the enemy, but to give law to the governor, and to force him to give a ſanction by his authority to thoſe proceedings which were meant to deſtroy it. Bacon, armed with the commiſſion of a general, and followed by the whole force of the colony, prepared to march againſt the Indians; when

Sir

Sir William Berkley, the governor, freed from the immediate terror of his forces, recalled him, proclaimed him a traitor, and iſſued a reward for apprehending him as ſuch.

This brought matters to extremities: the people were univerſally inflamed; Bacon adhered to what he had done, the people adhered to Bacon; and the governor, who ſeemed no ways inclined to temporize or yield to the ſtorm, fled over the river Potowmack, and proclaimed all Bacon's adherents traitors. He put himſelf at the head of a ſmall body of troops which he had raiſed in Maryland, and of ſuch of the Virginians as were faithful to him, and wrote to England for ſupplies. On the other hand, Bacon marched to the capital, called an aſſembly, and for ſix months together diſpoſed all things according to his own pleaſure.

Every thing was now haſtening to a civil war, when all was quieted, in as ſudden a manner as it had begun, by the natural death of Bacon, in the very height of the confuſion. The people, unable to act without a head, propoſed terms of accommodation; the terms were liſtened to, and peace was reſtored and kept without any diſturbance, not ſo much by the removal of the grievances complained of, as by the arrival of a regiment from England, which remained a long time in this province before they were recalled.

The events in all countries which are not the reſidence of the ſupreme power, and have

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no concern in the great buſineſs of tranſacting war and peace, have generally but little to engage the attention of the reader. We have therefore intirely omitted the tedious detail of the governors and their ſeveral tranſactions, with which our materials, ſo plentifully ſupply us; and, for the ſame reaſon, we ſhall be very conciſe in our account of Maryland, which, agreeing altogether with Virginia in its climate, ſoil, products, trade and genius of the inhabitants, and having few or no remarkable events to recommend it, will ſave much trouble in our account of that province.

MARYLAND.

THIS province is ſituated between ſeventy-five and eighty degrees of weſt longitude, and between thirty-ſeven and forty degrees of north latitude, being about one hundred and forty miles in length, and about one hundred and thirty-five miles in breadth. It is bounded on the north by Penſylvania; on the eaſt, by another part of Penſylvania and the Atlantic Ocean; on the ſouth, by Virginia, and on the weſt, by the Apalachian mountains.

In the reign of Charles the firſt, the lord Baltimore applied for a patent for a part of Virginia, and obtained, in 1632, a grant of a tract of land upon Cheſapeak bay, of about an hundred and forty miles long, and an hundred and thirty broad, having Penſylvania, then in

in the hands of the Dutch, upon the north, the Atlantic Ocean upon the eaſt, and the river Powtomack upon the ſouth: in honour of the queen, he called this province Maryland.

Lord Baltimore was a Roman Catholic, and was induced to attempt this ſettlement in America, in hopes of enjoying liberty of conſcience for himſelf, and for ſuch of his friends to whom the ſeverity of the laws might looſen their ties to their country, and make them prefer an eaſy baniſhment with freedom, to the conveniencies of England, embittered as they were by the ſharpneſs of the laws, and the popular odium which hung over them.

The court at that time was certainly very little inclined to treat the Roman Catholics in a harſh manner, neither had they in reality the leaſt appearance of reaſon to do ſo; but the laws themſelves were of a rigorous conſtitution; and however the court might be inclined to relax them, they could not in policy do it but with great reſerve. The puritan party perpetually accuſed the court, and indeed the epiſcopal church, of a deſire of returning to popery; and this accuſation was ſo popular, that it was not in the power of the court to ſhew the papiſts that indulgence which they deſired.

The laws were ſtill executed with very little mitigation; and they were in themſelves of a much keener temper, than thoſe which had driven the puritans about the ſame time to ſeek a refuge in the ſame part of the world. Theſe reaſons made lord Baltimore deſirous to have,

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and the court willing to give him, a place of retreat in America, where he might live undiſturbed.

The ſettlement of the colony coſt the lord Baltimore a large ſum. It was made, under his auſpices, by his brother, and about two hundred perſons, Roman Catholics, and moſt of them of good families. This ſettlement, at the beginning, did not meet with the ſame difficulties, which embarraſſed and retarded moſt of the others we had made. The people were generally of the better ſort; a proper ſubordination was obſerved amongſt them; and the Indians gave and took ſo little offence, that they ceded one half of their principal town, and ſometime after the whole of it, to theſe ſtrangers.

The Indian women taught ours how to make bread of their corn; their men went out to hunt and fiſh with the Engliſh; they aſſiſted them in the chaſe, and ſold them the game they took themſelves for a trifling conſideration; ſo that the new ſettlers had a ſort of town ready built, ground ready cleared for their ſubſiſtence, and no enemy to harraſs them. They lived thus, without much touble or fear, until ſome ill-diſpoſed perſons in Virginia inſinuated to the Indians, that the Baltimore colony had deſigns upon them; that they were Spaniards and not Engliſhmen; and ſuch other ſtories as they judged proper to ſow the ſeeds of ſuſpicion and enmity in the minds of theſe people.

Upon

Upon the first appearance, that the malice of the Virginians had taken effect, the new planters were not wanting to themselves. They built a good fort with all expedition, and took every other necessary measure for their defence; but they continued still to treat the Indians with so much kindness, that, partly by that, and partly by the awe of their arms, the ill designs of their enemies were defeated.

As the colony met with so few obstructions, and as the Roman Catholics in England were yet more severely treated, in proportion as the court party declined, numbers constantly arrived to replenish the settlement; which the lord proprietor omitted no care, and withheld no expence, to support and encourage; until the usurpation overturned the government at home, and deprived him of his rights abroad.

Maryland remained under the governors appointed by the parliament and by Cromwell until the Restoration, when lord Baltimore was re-instated in his former possessions, which he cultivated with his former wisdom, care, and moderation. No people could live in greater ease and security; and his lordship, willing that as many as possible should enjoy the benefits of his mild and equitable administration, gave his consent to an act of assembly, which he had before promoted in his province, for allowing a free and unlimitted toleration for all who professed the Christian religion, of whatever denomination.

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This liberty, which was never in the leaſt inſtance violated, encouraged a great number, not only of the church of England, but of preſbyterians, quakers, and all kinds of diſſenters, to ſettle in Maryland, which before that was almoſt wholly in the hands of Roman Catholics. This lord, though guilty of no mal-adminiſtration in his government, though a zealous Roman Catholic, and firmly attached to the cauſe of king James the ſecond, could not prevent his charter from being queſtioned in that arbitrary reign, and a ſuit from being commenced, to deprive him of the property and juriſdiction of a province granted by the royal favour, and peopled at ſuch a vaſt expence of his own. But it was the error of that weak and unfortunate reign, neither to know its friends, nor its enemies; but, by a blind precipitate conduct, to hurry on every thing of whatever conſequence with almoſt equal heat, and to imagine that the ſound of the royal authority was ſufficient to juſtify every ſort of conduct to every ſort of people. But theſe injuries could not ſhake the honour and conſtancy of lord Baltimore, nor tempt him to deſert the cauſe of his maſter.

Upon the Revolution, he had no reaſon to expect any favour; yet he met with more than king James had intended him; he was deprived indeed of all his juriſdiction, but he was left the profits of his province, which were by no means inconſiderable; and when his deſcendants had conformed to the church of Endgland, they were reſtored to all their

rights

ghts as fully as the legiſlature has thought
that any proprietor ſhould enjoy them.
When, upon the Revolution, power changed
ands in that province, the new men made
ut an indifferent requital for the liberties and
ndulgences they had enjoyed under the old
dminiſtration.

They not only deprived the Roman Catho-
cs of all ſhare in the government, but of all
he rights of freemen; they have even adopted
he whole body of the penal laws of England
gainſt them; they were even lately meditating
ew laws in the ſame ſpirit, and they would
ndoubtedly have gone to the greateſt lengths
this reſpect, if the moderation and good
enſe of the government in England had not
t ſome bounds to their bigotry; thinking
ery prudently, that it were highly unjuſt,
nd equally impolitic, to allow any aſylum
broad to any religious perſuaſions which they
dged it improper to tolerate at home, and
hen to deprive them of its protection; recol-
cting at the ſame time, in the various changes
hich our religion and government have un-
ergone, which have in their turns rendered
very ſort of party and religion obnoxious to
he reigning powers, that this American aſy-
um, which has been admitted in the hotteſt
imes of perſecution at home, has proved of
nfinite ſervice, not only to the peace of Eng-
and, but to the proſperity of its commerce,
nd the eſtabliſhment of its power.

There are a ſort of men, who will not ſee
o plain a truth; and they are the perſons

who would appear to contend moſt warmly for liberty; but it is only a party liberty for which they contend; a liberty, which they would ſtretch out one way only to narrow it in another; they are not aſhamed of uſing the very ſame pretences for perſecuting others, that their enemies uſe for perſecuting them.

This colony, as for a long time it had with Penſylvania the honour of being unſtained with any religious perſecution, ſo neither they nor the Penſylvanians have ever until very lately been harraſſed by the calamity of any war, offenſive or defenſive, with their Indian neighbours, with whom they always lived in the moſt exemplary harmony. Indeed, in a war which the Indians made upon the colony of Virginia, by miſtake they made an incurſion into the bounds of Maryland; but they were ſoon ſenſible of their miſtake, and atoned for it. The late war indeed changed every thing, and the Indians were taught to laugh at all their ancient alliance.

Maryland, like Virginia, has no conſiderable town, and for the ſame reaſon, the number of navigable creeks and rivers. Anopolis is the ſeat of government. It is a ſmall but beautifully ſituated town, upon the river Severn. Here is the ſeat of the governor, and the principal cuſtom-houſe collection.

The people of Maryland have the ſame eſtabliſhed religion with thoſe of Virginia, that of the church of England; but here the clergy are provided for in a much more liberal man-

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ner, and they are the moſt decent, and the beſt of the clergy in Noth America. They export from Maryland the ſame things in all reſpects that they do from Virginia.

NORTH *and* SOUTH CAROLINA, *including* GEORGIA.

THESE provinces are ſituated between ſeventy-ſix and ninety-one degrees of weſt longitude, and between thirty and thirty-ſeven degrees of north latitude, being about ſeven hundred miles in length, and about three hundred and eighty in breadth. They are bounded on the north by Virginia; on the eaſt by the Atlantic Ocean; on the ſouth by the river St. John, which ſeparates Georgia from Florida; and on the weſt by the Miſſiſippi.

We formerly called all the coaſt of North America by the name of Virginia. The province properly ſo called, with Maryland and the Carolinas, was known by the name of South Virginia. By the Spaniards it was conſidered as part of Florida, which country they made to extend from New Mexico to the Atlantic Ocean. By them it was firſt diſcovered; but they treated the natives with an inhumanity, which filled them with ſo violent an hatred to the Spaniſh name, as rendered their ſettlement there very difficult; nor did they puſh it vigorouſly, as the country ſhewed no marks of producing gold or ſilver, the only

things for which the Spaniards then valued any country.

Florida therefore remained under an entire neglect in Europe, until the reign of Charles the ninth, king of France. The celebrated leader of the proteſtants in that kingdom, the admiral Chaſtillion, who was not only a great commander, but an able ſtateſman, was a man of too comprehenſive views not to ſee the advantages of a ſettlement in America; he procured two veſſels to be fitted out for diſcoveries upon that coaſt. He had it probably in his thoughts to retire thither with thoſe of his perſuaſion, if the ſucceſs, which hitherto ſuited ſo ill with his great courage and conduct ſhould at laſt entirely deſtroy his cauſe in France.

Theſe ſhips in two months arrived upon the coaſt of America, near the river now called Albemarle, in the province of North Carolina. The French gave the Indians to underſtand, in the beſt manner they were able, that they were enemies to the Spaniards, which ſecured them a friendly reception and the good offices of the inhabitants. They were, however, in no condition to make any ſettlement. On their return to France, the admiral, at this time by the abominable policy of the court apparently in great favour, was ſo well ſatisfied with the account they had given of the country, that, in 1564, he fitted out five or ſix ſhips, with as many hundred men aboard to begin a colony there. This was accordingly done at the place of their landing in the firſt

expedition

expedition. They built a fort here, which they called Fort Charles, as they called the whole country Carolina, in honour of their king then reigning.

The Spaniards, who had intelligence of their proceedings, diſpatched a conſiderable force to attack this colony, who, not ſatisfied with reducing it, put all the people to the ſword, after quarter given; and, committing great outrages upon the natives, they paved the way for the vengeance, which ſoon after fell upon them, for ſuch an unneceſſary and unprovoked act of cruelty.

The Indians greedily embraced the opportunity of becoming aſſociates in the puniſhment of the common enemy. They joined in the ſiege of two or three forts the Spaniards had built there; they took them, and, in all of them, put the garriſon to the ſword without mercy. Satisfied with this action, the adventurers returned, and, happily for us, the French court did not underſtand, blinded as they were by their bigotry, the advantages which might have been derived from giving America to the proteſtants, as we afterwards did to the diſſenters, as a place of refuge; if they had taken this ſtep, moſt certainly we ſhould have either had no ſettlements in America at all, or they muſt have been ſmall in extent, and precarious in their tenure.

After a ſucceſsful expedition made by the French, the country of Carolina remained without any attention from Spaniards, French, or Engliſh, until, as we obſerved in the article

of Virginia, Sir Walter Raleigh projected an eſtabliſhment there. It was not in the part now called Virginia, but in North Carolina, that our firſt unhappy ſettlements were made and deſtroyed. Afterwards the adventurers entered the bay of Cheſapeak, and fixed a permanent colony to the northward; ſo that, although Carolina was the firſt part of the Atlantic coaſt of America, which had an European colony, yet, by an odd caprice, it was for a long time deſerted both by England and France, who ſettled with infinitely more difficulty in climates much leſs advantageous or agreeable. Indeed, it was not until the year 1663, in the reign of Charles the ſecond, that we had any notion of formally ſettling that country.

In that year, the earl of Clarendon, lord chancellor, the duke of Albemarle, the lord Craven, lord Berkley, lord Aſhley, afterwards earl of Shafteſbury, Sir George Carteret, Sir William Berkley, and Sir George Colleton, obtained a charter for the property and juriſdiction of that country, from the thirty-firſt degree of north latitude to the thirty-ſixth; and, being inveſted with full power to ſettle and govern the country, they had the model of a conſtitution framed, and a body of fundamental laws compiled, by the famous philoſopher Mr. Locke.

On this plan, the lords proprietors themſelves ſtood in the place of the king, gave their aſſent or diſſent, as they thought proper, to all laws, appointed all officers, and beſtow-

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ed all titles of dignity. In his turn, one of these lords acted for the rest. In the province they appointed two other branches, in a good measure analogous to the legislature in England. They made three ranks, or rather classes of nobility. The lowest was composed of those to whom they had made grants of twelve thousand acres of land, whom they called barons; the next order had twenty-four thousand acres, or two baronies, with the title of cassiques; these were to answer our earls; the third had two cassiqueships, or forty-eight thousand acres, and were called landgraves, a title in that province analogous to duke. This body formed the upper house; their lands were not alienable by parcels. The lower house was formed, as it is in the other colonies, of representatives from the several towns or counties. But the whole was not called, as in the rest of the plantations, an assembly, but a parliament. They began their first settlement at a point of land towards the southward of their district, between two navigable rivers, though of no long course, called Ashley and Cowper rivers; and there laid the foundation of a city, called Charlestown, which was designed to be, what it now is, the capital of the province.

They expended about twelve thousand pounds in the first settlement. But it was not chiefly to the funds of the lords proprietors, that this province owed its establishment. They observed what advantages the other colonies derived from opening an harbour for refugees;

refugees; and, not only from this conſideration, but from the humane diſpoſition of that excellent man who formed the model of their government, they gave an unlimited toleration to people of all religious perſuaſions. This induced a great number of diſſenters, over whom the then government held a more ſevere hand than was conſiſtent with juſtice or policy, to tranſport themſelves with their fortunes and families into Carolina.

They became ſoon at leaſt as numerous as the churchmen; and, though they diſplayed none of that frantic bigotry which diſgraced the New England refugees, they could not preſerve themſelves from the jealouſy and hatred of thoſe of the church of England, who, having a majority in one of the aſſemblies, attempted to exclude all diſſenters from a right of ſitting there. This produced diſſentions, tumults, and riots every day, which tore the colony to pieces, and hindered it for many years from making that progreſs which might be expected from its great natural advantages. The people fell into diſputes of no leſs violent a nature with the lords proprietors; and, provoking the Indians by a ſeries of unjuſt and violent actions, they gave occaſion to two wars, in which however they were victorious, and ſubdued almoſt all the Indian nations within their own bounds on this ſide of the Apalachin mountains.

Their inteſtine diſtractions and their foreign wars kept the colony ſo low, that an act of parliament, if poſſible to prevent the la-

ruinous

ruinous conſequences of theſe diviſions, put the province under the immediate care and inſpection of the crown. The lords proprietors, making a virtue of neceſſity, accepted a recompence of about twenty-four thouſand pounds, both for the property and juriſdiction; except the earl Granville, who kept his eighth part of the property, which comprehends very near half of North Carolina, on that part which immediately borders upon the province of Virginia. Their conſtitution, in thoſe points wherein it differed from that of the other colonies, was altered; and the country, for the more commodious adminiſtration of affairs, was divided into two diſtinct independent governments, called *North Carolina* and *South Carolina*. This was in the year 1728. In a little time, a firm peace was eſtabliſhed with all the neighbouring Indian nations, the Cherokees, the Creeks, and the Cataubas; the province began to breathe from its internal quarrels, and its trade has advanced every year ſince that time with an aſtoniſhing rapidity, until the preſent unhappy diſputes put a fatal check to it.

The climate and ſoil in theſe countries do not conſiderably differ from thoſe of Virginia; but, where they differ, it is much to the advantage of Carolina, which, on the whole, may be conſidered as one of the fineſt climates in the world. The heat in ſummer is very little greater than in Virginia; but the winters are milder and ſhorter, and the year, in all reſpects, does not come to the ſame

violent

violent extremeties. However, the weather, though in general ſerene as the air is healthy, yet, like all American weather, makes ſuch quick changes, and thoſe ſo ſharp, as to oblige the inhabitans to rather more caution in their dreſs and diet, than we are obliged to uſe in Europe.

Thunder and lightening is frequent; and it is the only one of our colonies upon the continent which is ſubject to hurricanes; but they are very rare, and not near ſo violent as thoſe of the Weſt-Indies. Part of the month of March, and all April, May, and the greateſt part of June, are here inexpreſſibly temperate and agreeable; but in July, Auguſt, and for almoſt the whole of September, the heat is very intenſe; and, though the winters are ſharp, eſpecially when the north-weſt wind prevails, yet they are ſeldom ſevere enough to freeze any conſiderable water, affecting only the mornings and evenings; the froſts have never ſufficient ſtrength to reſiſt the noon-day ſun, ſo that many tender plants, which do not ſtand the winter of Virginia, flouriſh in Carolina; for they have oranges in great plenty near Charles-town, and excellent in their kinds, both ſweet and ſour. Olives are rather neglected by the planter, than denied by the climate.

The vegitation of every kind of plant is here almoſt incredibly quick; for there is ſomething ſo kindly in the air and ſoil, that, where the latter has the moſt barren and unpromiſing appearance, if neglected for a while,

of

of itſelf it ſhoots out an immenſe quantity of thoſe various plants and beautiful flowering ſhrubs and flowers, for which this country is ſo famous, and of which Mr. Cateſby, in his Natural Hiſtory of Carolina, has made ſuch fine drawings.

The whole country is in a manner one foreſt, where our planters have not cleared it. The trees are almoſt the ſame in every reſpect with thoſe produced in Virginia; and, by the different ſpecies of theſe, the qualities of the ſoil is eaſily known; for thoſe grounds which bear the oak, the walnut, and the hickory, are extremely fertile: they are of a dark ſand, intermixed with loam, and, as all their land abounds with nitre, it is a long time before it is exhauſted; for here they never uſe any manure.

The pine barren is the worſt of all; this is an almoſt perfectly white ſand, yet it bears the pine tree and ſome other uſeful plants naturally, yielding good profit in pitch, tar, and turpentine. When this ſpecies of land is cleared, for two or three years together it produces very tolerable crops of Indian corn and peaſe; and, when it lies low and is flooded, it even anſwers well for rice. But, what is the beſt of all for this province, this worſt ſpecies of its land is favourable to a ſpecies of the moſt valuable of all its products to one of the kinds of indigo.

There is another ſort of ground, which lies low and wet upon the banks of ſome of their rivers; this is called ſwamp, which in ſome places

places is in a manner uſeleſs, in others it is far the richeſt of all their grounds; it is a black fat earth, and bears their great ſtaple rice, which muſt have in general a rich moiſt ſoil, in the greateſt plenty and perfection. The country near the ſea, and at the mouths of the navigable rivers, is much the worſt; for the moſt of the land there is of the ſpecies of the pale, light, ſandy-coloured ground; and what is otherwiſe in thoſe parts is little better than an unhealthy and unprofitable ſalt marſh; but the country, as you advance in it, improves continually; and at an hundred miles diſtance from Charles-town, where it begins to grow hilly, the ſoil is of a prodigious fertility, fitted for every pupoſe of human life.

The air is pure and wholeſome, and the ſummer heats much more temperate than in the flat country; for Carolina is all an even plain for eighty miles from the ſea; no hill, no rock, ſcarce even a pebble to be met with: ſo that the beſt part of the maritime country, from this ſameneſs, muſt want ſomething of the fine effect which its beautiful products would have by a more variegated and advantageous diſpoſition; but nothing can be imagined more pleaſant to the eye than the back country, and its fruitfulneſs is almoſt incredible. Wheat grows extremely well there, and yields a prodigious increaſe.

In the other parts of Carolina they raiſe but little, where it is apt to mildew and ſpend itſelf in ſtraw; and theſe evils the planters take very little care to redreſs, as they

turn their whole attention to the culture of rice, which is more profitable, and in which they are unrivalled, being ſupplied with what wheat they want in exchange for this grain from New York and Penſylvania.

The land in Carolina is very eaſily cleared every where, as there is little or no underwood. Their foreſts conſiſt moſtly of great trees at a conſiderable diſtance aſunder; ſo that they can clear in Carolina more land in a week, than in the foreſts of Europe they can do in a month. Their method is to cut them at about a foot from the ground, and then ſaw the trees into boards, or convert them into ſtaves, heading, or other ſpecies of lumber, according to the nature of the wood or the demands at the market. If they are too far from navigation, they heap them together, and leave them to rot. The roots ſoon decay; and, before that, they find no inconvenience from them, where land is ſo extenſive.

As to the native animals of this country, they are in general the ſame with thoſe of Virginia, but there is yet a greater number and variety of beautiful fowls. All the animals of Europe are here in plenty; black cattle are multiplied prodigiouſly. About fifty years ago, it was a thing extraordinary to have above three or four cows, now ſome have a thouſand; ſome in North Carolina a great many more; but to have two or three hundred is very common. Theſe ramble all day at pleaſure in the foreſts; but, their calves being ſeparated and kept in fenced paſtures, the cows

return every evening to them; they are then milked, detained all night, milked in the morning, and then let loose again. The hogs range in the same manner, and return like the cows, by having shelter and some victuals provided for them at the plantation; these are vastly numerous, and many quite wild; many horned cattle and horses too run wild in their woods, though at their first settlement there was not one of these animals in the country.

They drive a great many cattle from North Carolina every year into Virginia, to be slaughtered there; and they kill and salt some beef, and a good deal of pork, for the West-Indies, within themselves; but the beef is neither so good, nor does it keep near so long, as what is sent to the same market from Ireland. They export a considerable number of live cattle to Pensylvania and the West-Indies. Sheep are not so plenty as the black cattle or hogs, neither is their flesh so good, and their wool is of a very indifferent sort.

The trade of Carolina, besides the lumber, provision, and the like, which it yields in common with the rest of America, has three great staple commodities, indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine, turpentine, tar, and pitch. The two former commodities South Carolina has entirely to itself; and, taking in North Carolina, this part of America yields more pitch and tar than all the rest of our colonies.

In former times, rice was the staple of this province: this wholsome grain makes a great

part

part of the food of all ranks of people in the ſouthern parts of the world; in the northern, it is not ſo much in requeſt. Whilſt the rigour of the act of navigation obliged them to ſend all their rice directly to England, to be re-ſhipped for the markets of Spain and Portugal, the charges incident to this regulation lay ſo heavy upon the trade, that the cultivation of rice, eſpecially in time of war, when theſe charges were greatly aggravated by the riſe of the freight and inſurance, hardly anſwered the charges of the planter; but now the legiſlature has relaxed the law in this reſpect, and permits the Carolinians to ſend their rice directly to any place to the ſouthward of Cape Finiſterre.

This prudent indulgence revived the rice trade; and, though they have gone largely, and with great ſpirit, into the profitable article of indigo, it has not diverted their attention from the cultivation of rice; they raiſe now above double the quantity of what they raiſed ſome years formerly; and this branch alone of their commerce is, at the loweſt eſtimation, worth one hundred and fifty thouſand pounds ſterling annually.

Indigo is a dye made from a plant of the ſame name, which probably was ſo called from India, where it was firſt cultivated, and from whence we had, for a conſiderable time, the whole of what we conſumed in Europe. This plant is very like the fern when grown, and, when young, hardly diſtinguiſhable from lucern-graſs; its leaves in general are pennated

and terminated by a ſingle lobe; the flowers conſiſt of five leaves, and are of the papilionaceous kind; the uppermoſt petal being larger and rounder than the reſt, and lightly furrowed on the ſide; the lower ones are ſhort, and end in a point; in the middle of the flower is ſituated the ſtyle, which afterwards becomes a pod, containing the ſeeds.

Three ſorts of indigo are cultivated in Carolina, which demand the ſame variety of ſoils. Firſt, the French or Hiſpaniola indigo, which ſtriking a long tap-root, will only flouriſh in a deep rich ſoil; and therefore, though an excellent ſort, is not ſo much cultivated in the maritime parts of Carolina, which are generally ſandy; but no part of the world is more fit to produce it in perfection than the ſame country an hundred miles backwards; it is neglected too on another account, for it hardly bears a winter ſo ſharp, as that of Carolina.

The ſecond ſort, which is the falſe Guatemala or true Bahama, bears the winter better, is a more tall and vigorous plant, is raiſed in greater quantities from the ſame compaſs of ground; is content with the worſt ſoils in the country, and is therefore more cultivated than the firſt ſort, though inferior in the quality of its dye.

The wild indigo is the third ſort, which is indigenous here; this, as it is a native of the country, anſwers the purpoſes of the planter the beſt of all, with regard to the hardineſs of the plant, the eaſineſs of the culture, and the

quantity

quantity of the produce; of the quality there is ſome diſpute, not yet ſettled amongſt the planters themſelves; nor can they as yet diſtinctly tell whether they are to attribute the faults of their indigo to the nature of the plant, to the ſeaſons, which have much influence upon it, or to ſome defect in the method of preparing it.

The indigo is generally planted after the firſt rains ſucceeding the vernal equinox; the ſeed is ſowed in ſmall ſtrait trenches, about eighteen or twenty inches aſunder; when it is at its height, it is generally eighteen inches tall. It is fit for cutting, if all things anſwer well, in the beginning of July. Towards the end of Auguſt, a ſecond cutting is obtained; and, if they have a mild autumn, there is a third cutting at Michaelmas; the indigo land muſt be weeded every day, the plants cleanſed from worms, and the plantation attended with the greateſt care and diligence; about twenty-five negroes may manage a plantation of fifty acres, and complete the manufacture of the drug, beſides providing their own neceſſary ſubſiſtence, and that of the planter's family.

Each acre yields, if the land be very good, ſixty or ſeventy pounds weight of indigo; at a medium the produce is fifty pounds. When the plant is beginning to bloſſom, it is fit for cutting; and, when cut, great care ought to be taken to bring it to the ſteeper, without preſſing or ſhaking it, as a great part of the beauty of the indigo depends upon the fine

farina which adheres to the leaves of this plant. The apparatus for making indigo is pretty conſiderable, though not very expenſive; for, beſides a pump, the whole conſiſts only of vats and tubs of cyprus wood, common and cheap in this country.

The indigo, when cut, is firſt laid in a vat about twelve or fourteen feet long, and four deep, to the height of about fourteen inches, to maccerate and digeſt. Then this veſſel, which is called the ſteeper, is filled with water; the whole having lain from about twelve or ſixteen hours, according to the weather, begins to ferment, ſwell, riſe, and grow ſenſibly warm; at this time ſpars of wood are run acroſs to prevent its riſing too much, and a pin is then ſet to mark the higheſt point of its aſcent; when it falls below this mark, they judge that the fermentation has attained its due pitch, and begins to abate; this directs the manager to open a cock, and let off the water into another vat, which is called the beater; the groſs matter that remains in the firſt vat is carried off to manure the ground, for which purpoſe it is excellent, and new cuttings are put in as long as the harveſt of this weed continues. When the water, ſtrongly impregnated with the particles of the indigo, has run into the ſecond vat or beater, they attend with a ſort of bottomleſs buckets, with long handles, to work and agitate it; which they do inceſſantly, until it heats, froths, ferments, and riſes above the rim of the veſſel which contains it; to allay this violent fermentation, oil is thrown

thrown in as the froth riſes, which inſtantly ſinks it.

When this beating has continued for twenty, thirty, or thirty-five minutes, according to the ſtate of the weather (for in cool weather it requires the longeſt continued beating) a ſmall muddy grain begins to be formed, the ſalts and other particles of the plant united and diſſolved before with the water, are now reunited, and begin to granulate. In order to diſcover theſe particles the better, and to find when the liquor is ſufficiently beaten, they take up ſome of it from time to time on a plate or in a glaſs; when it appears in an hopeful condition, they let looſe ſome lime water from an adjacent veſſel, gently ſtirring the whole, which wonderfully facilitates the operation; the indigo granulates more fully, the liquor aſſumes a purpliſh colour, and the whole is troubled and muddy; it is now ſuffered to ſettle; then the clearer part is left to run off into another ſucceſſion of veſſels, from whence the water is conveyed away as faſt as it clears at the top, until nothing remains but a thick mud, which is put into bags of coarſe linen. Theſe are hung up and left for ſome time, until the moiſture is entirely drained off.

To finiſh the drying, this mud is turned out of the bags, and worked upon boards of ſome porous timber with a wooden ſpatula; it is frequently expoſed to the morning and evening ſun, but for a ſhort time only; and then it is put into boxes or frames, which is called the

curing,

curing, expoſed again to the ſun in the ſame cautious manner, until with great labour and attention the operation is finiſhed, and the valuable drug, called indigo, fitted for the market.

The greateſt ſkill and care is required in every part of the proceſs, or there may be great danger of ruining the whole; the water muſt not be ſuffered to remain too ſhort or too long a time, either in the ſteeper or the beater; the beating itſelf muſt be nicely managed ſo as not to exceed or fall ſhort; and, in the curing, the exact medium between too much or too little drying is not eaſily attained. Nothing but experience can make the overſeer ſkilful in theſe matters.

There are two methods of trying the goodneſs of indigo; by fire and by water; if it ſwims it is good, if it ſinks it is nought, the heavier the worſe; ſo if it wholly diſſolves in water it is good. Another way of proving is, by the fire ordeal; if it entirely burns away, it is good; the adulterations remain untouched.

There is perhaps no branch of manufacture, in which ſo large profits may be made upon ſo moderate a fund, as that of indigo; and there is no country in which this manufacture can be carried on to ſuch advantage as in Carolina, where the climate is healthy, proviſion plentiful and cheap, and every thing neceſſary for that buſineſs had with the greateſt eaſe.

To do juſtice to the people of Carolina, they have not neglected theſe advantages; and, if they continue to improve them with the ſame ſpirit in which they have begun, and attend to the quality of their goods, they muſt naturally and neceſſarily come to ſupply the whole conſumption of the world with this commodity; and conſequently make their country the richeſt, as it is the pleaſanteſt and moſt fertile part of the Britiſh dominions, in North America, or perhaps in the whole world.

They make great quantities of turpentine, tar and pitch, in all parts of Carolina, but eſpecially in North Carolina. They are all the produce of the pine. The turpentine is drawn ſimply from inciſions made in the tree; they are made from as great an height as a man can reach with an hatchet; theſe inciſions meet at the bottom of the tree in a point, where they pour their contents into a veſſel placed to receive them. There is nothing further in this proceſs.

Tar requires a more conſiderable apparatus and great trouble. They prepare a circular floor of clay, declining a little towards the center; from this is laid a pipe of wood, the upper part of which is even with the floor, and reaches ten feet without the circumference; under the end the earth is dug away, and barrels placed to receive the tar as it runs. Upon the floor is built up a large pile of pine-wood ſplit in pieces, and ſurrounded with a wall of earth, leaving only a ſmall aperture at

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the top where the fire is firſt kindled. When the fire begins to burn, they cover this opening likewiſe to confine the fire from flaming out, and to leave ſufficient heat to force the tar downwards to the floor. They temper the heat as they pleaſe, by running a ſtick into the wall of clay, and giving it air. Pitch is made by boiling tar in large iron kettles ſet in furnaces, or burning it in round clay holes made in the earth.

In the two provinces which compoſe Carolina, there are ten navigable rivers of a very long courſe, and innumerable ſmaller ones, which fall into them, all abounding in fiſh. About fifty or ſixty miles from the ſea, there are falls in moſt of the great rivers, which as you approach their ſources, become more frequent. This is the caſe of almoſt all the American rivers: at theſe falls, thoſe who navigate theſe rivers land their goods, carry them beyond the cataract on horſes or waggons, and then re-ſhip them below or above it. The mouths of the rivers in North Carolina form but ordinary harbours, and do not admit, except one at Cape Fear, veſſels of above ſeventy or eighty tons; ſo that larger ſhips are obliged to lye off in the ſound called Ocacock, which is formed between ſome iſlands and the continent.

This lays a weight upon their trade by the expence of lighterage. North Carolina, partly upon that occaſion, but principally that the firſt ſettlements were made as near as poſſible to the capital, which lies conſiderably to the ſouth-

southward, was greatly neglected. For a long time it was but ill inhabited, and by an indigent and disorderly people, who had little property, and hardly any law or government to protect them in what they had. As commodious land grew scarce in the other colonies, people in low circumstances, observing that a great deal of excellent and convenient land was yet to be patented in North Carolina, were induced by that circumstance to plant themselves there. Others, who saw how they prospered, followed their example. The government became more attentive to the place as it became more valuable; by degrees something of a better order was introduced.

The effect of which is, that, though by no means as wealthy as South Carolina, North Carolina has many more white people; things begin to wear a face of settlement; and the difficulties they have lain under, are not so many nor so great, as to make us neglect all future efforts, or hindering us from forming very reasonable expectations of seeing the trade of this country, with *proper* management, become a flourishing and fruitful branch of the British American commerce,

Edenton was formerly the capital of North Caroli a, if a trifling village can deserve that denomination. Indeed, none of their towns are worth mentioning; the conveniency of inland navigation in all our southern colonies, and the want of handicraftsmen, is a great and almost insuperable obstacle to their having any towns of consequence.

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The only town in either of the Carolinas, which can draw our attention, is Charles-town; and this is one of the firſt in North America for ſize, beauty, and traffic. Its ſituation we have already mentioned, ſo admirably choſen at the confluence of two navigable rivers. Its harbour is good in every reſpect, but that of a bar, which hinders veſſels of more than two hundred tons burden from entering.

The town is regularly and pretty ſtrongly fortified both by nature and art; the ſtreets are well cut; the houſes are large and well built, and rent extremely high. The church is ſpacious, and executed in a very handſome taſte, exceeding every thing of that kind which we have in America. Here, beſides, the ſeveral denominations of diſſenters have their meeting-houſes. It contains about eight hundred houſes, and is the ſeat of the governor and the place of meeting of the aſſembly. Several handſome equipages are kept here. The planters and merchants are rich and well bred; the people are ſhewy and expenſive in their dreſs and way of living; ſo that every thing conſpires to make this by much the livelieſt and politeſt place, as it is one of the richeſt too, in all America.

The beſt harbour in this province is far to the ſouthward, on the borders of Georgia, called Port Royal. This might give a capacious and ſafe reception to the largeſt fleets of the greateſt bulk and burden; yet the town, which is called Beaufort, built upon an iſland

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of the ſame name with the harbour, is not as yet conſiderable, but it bids fair in time for becoming the firſt trading town in this part of America.

The import trade of South Carolina from Great Britain and the Weſt-Indies, is the ſame in all reſpects with that of the reſt of the colonies, and is very large. Their trade with the Indians is likewiſe in a very flouriſhing condition.

As South Carolina has met with infinitely more attention than the other provinces, the commerce of this country alone employs one hundred and forty ſhips, while that of North Carolina and Georgia does not employ ſixty. Its exports to Great Britain of native commodities, on an avarage of three years, amount to more than three hundred and ninety-five thouſand pounds, annual value, and its imports at three hundred and ſixty-five thouſand pounds.

The exports of North Carolina are computed at ſixty-eight thouſand pounds, and its imports at about eighteen thouſand pounds. The trade of Georgia is likewiſe in its infancy; its exports amount to a little more than ſeventy-four thouſand pounds, and its imports at forty-nine thouſand pounds. The trade between Carolina and the Weſt-Indies is the ſame, in all reſpects, with that of the reſt of the colonies. Their trade with the Indians is likewiſe in a very flouriſhing condition, and they carry Engliſh goods on pack-horſes five

or ſix hundred miles into the country weſt of Charles-town.

They export no inconſiderable quantity of beaver, racoon, otter, fox, minx, and wild cats ſkins, and in every ſhip a good deal of live cattle, beſides what they vend in Virginia. Both in North and South Carolina they have made frequent, but we think not vigorous nor ſufficiently continued, efforts in the cultivation of cotton and ſilk. What they have ſent home of theſe commodities is of ſo excellent a kind, as to give us great encouragement to proceed in a buſineſs which we have not taken to heart with all the warmth which its importance in trade, and the fitneſs of the climate for theſe moſt valuable articles, certainly deſerve.

It was a long time before this province went into the profitable trade of indigo, notwithſtanding a premium ſubſiſted a good many years for all that ſhould be raiſed in our plantations; the thing was at firſt diſpaired of, and it was never judged that Carolina could produce this drug; but no ſooner had a few ſhewn a ſpirited and ſucceſsful example, than all went into it ſo heartily, that it is now, or at leaſt was before the preſent troubles, in a very flouriſhing ſtate; and as they go on, in a very little time, they will ſupply the market with a commodity, which before we purchaſed every ounce from the French and Spaniards.

Silk requires ſtill more trouble, and a cloſer attention; as yet it proceeds from langour, nor will a premium alone ever ſuffice to ſet on

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foot, in a vigorous manner, a manufacture which will find great difficulties in any country, which does not abound in hands that can work for very trifling wages. The want of this advantage in Carolina, though no part of the world is fitter for this buſineſs, and no buſineſs could be ſo advantageous to England, will, for a very long time, be an impediment to the manufacture of raw-ſilk, unleſs ſome proper, well-ſtudied, and vigorouſly-exerted ſcheme be ſet on foot for that purpoſe, and ſurely it is a matter worthy of a very ſerious conſideration.

America is our great reſource; this will, (ſhould the preſent troubles end amicably) remain to us when other branches of our trade are decayed, or exiſt no more; and therefore we ought to grudge no expence that may enable them to anſwer this end ſo effectually, as one day to ſupply the many loſſes we have already had, and the many more we have but too much reaſon to apprehend, in our commerce. Theſe expences are not like the expences of an unnatural and civil war, heavy in their nature, precarious in their effects, and always ruinous in their conſequences; but, when proper encouragement is given, and when matters are judiciouſly ordered, they produce the certain and infallible means of rich and ſucceſſive harveſts of gain to the lateſt poſterity, at the momentary charge of a comparatively ſmall quantity of ſeed, and of a moderate huſbandry to the preſent generation.

We ſhall now proceed to ſpeak of the ſettlement of GEORGIA, point out the defects of the firſt plan of the ſettlement, and the attempts made uſe of to remedy the evils that aroſe from thence.

In the year 1732, the government, obſerving that a great tract of land in Carolina, upon the borders of the Spaniſh Florida, lay waſte and unſettled, reſolved to erect it into a ſeparate province, and to ſend a colony thither. This they were the rather induced to do, becauſe it lay on the frontier of all our provinces, naked and defenceleſs; whereas, if it could be properly ſettled, it would be a ſtrong barrier to them upon that ſide, or at leaſt would be ſufficient to protect Carolina from the incurſions which the Indians, inſtigated by the French or Spaniards, might make upon that province.

They had it likewiſe in their view to raiſe wine, oil, and ſilk, and to turn the induſtry of this new people, from the timber and proviſion trade, which the other colonies had gone into too largely, into channels more advantageous to the public. Laudable deſigns in every reſpect; though perhaps the means which were taken to put them in execution were not altogether adequate to the idea.

Every part of that country, which lies between the rivers Savannah and Alatamaha north and ſouth, and from the Atlantic Ocean on the eaſt to the great South-Sea upon the weſt, was veſted in truſtees; at the end of that

that period, the property in chief was to revert to the crown.

The truſtees, in purſuance of the original deſign, reſolved to encourage poor to ſettle in the province, which had been committed to their care; and to this purpoſe found them in neceſſaries to tranſport them into a country, of which they had previouſly publiſhed a moſt exaggerated and flattering deſcription. In reality, the country differs little from South Carolina, but that the ſummers are yet hotter, and the ſoil in general of a poorer kind.

The colony was ſent over under the care of Mr. Oglethorpe, who very generouſly beſtowed his own time and pains, without any reward, for the advancement of the ſettlement. The truſtees had very well obſerved, that many of our colonies, eſpecially that of South Carolina, had been very much endangered, both internally and externally, by ſuffering the negroes to grow ſo much more numerous than the whites. An error of this kind, they judged, in a colony which was not only to defend itſelf, but to be in ſome ſort a protection to the others, would have been inexcuſable; they, for that reaſon, forbid the importation of negroes into Georgia.

In the next place, they obſerved, that miſchiefs happened in the other ſettlements from making vaſt grants of land, which the grantees jobbed out again to the diſcouragement of the ſettlers, or what was worſe, ſuffered to lie idle and uncultivated. To avoid this miſchief, and to prevent the people from becoming

wealthy and luxurious, which they thought inconſiſtent with the military plan upon which this colony was founded, they allowed in the common courſe of each family but twenty-five acres; and none could, according to the original ſcheme, by any means come to poſſeſs more than five hundred. Neither did they give an inheritance in fee ſimple, or to the heirs general of the ſettlers, but granted them their lands inheritable only by their male iſſue. They likewiſe forbid the importation of rum into the province, to prevent the great diſorders which they obſerved to ariſe in the other parts of North America from the abuſe of ſpirituous liquors.

Theſe regulations, though well intended, and meant to bring about very excellent purpoſes, yet it might at firſt, as it did afterwards, appear, that they were made without ſufficiently conſulting the nature of the country, or the diſpoſition of the people which they regarded. For, in the firſt place, as the climate is exceſſively hot, and field-work very laborious in a new colony, as the ground muſt be cleared, tilled, and ſowed, all with great and inceſſant toil for their bare ſubſiſtence, the load was too heavy for the white men, eſpecially men who had not been ſeaſoned to the country.

The conſequence of all this was, that the greateſt part of their time, all the heat of the day, was ſpent in idleneſs, which brought certain want along with it. It is true, that all our colonies on the continent, even Virginia and

and Carolina, were originally ſettled without the help of negroes. The white men were obliged to labour, and they underwent it, becauſe they then ſaw no other way; but it is the nature of man not to ſubmit to extraordinary hardſhips in one ſpot, when they ſee their neighbours on another, without any difference in the circumſtances of things, in a much more eaſy condition. Beſides, all things contributed to diſpirit them, as there was no methods taken to animate them under the hardſhips they endured.

The majority of mankind muſt always be indigent; but in a new ſettlement they muſt be all ſo, unleſs ſome perſons there are on ſuch a comfortable and ſubſtantial footing as to give direction and vigour to the induſtry of the reſt; for in every well contrived building, there muſt be ſtrong beams and joiſts, as well as ſmaller bricks, tiles, and laths. Perſons of ſubſtance found themſelves diſcouraged from attempting a ſettlement, by the narrow bounds which no induſtry could enable them to paſs; and the deſign of confirming the inheritance to the male line was an additional diſcouragement.

Theſe, and ſeveral other inconveniencies, in the plan of the ſettlement, raiſed a general diſcontent in the inhabitants; they quarrelled with one another and with their magiſtrates; they complained, they remonſtrated, and, finding no ſatisfaction, many of them fled out of Georgia, and diſperſed themſelves where they deemed the encouragement better, to all

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the other colonies. So that of above two thouſand people, who had tranſported themſelves from Europe, in a little time not above ſix or ſeven hundred were to be found in Georgia; ſo far were they from increaſing. The miſchief grew worſe and worſe every day, until the government revoked the grant to the truſtees, took the province into their own hands, and annulled all the particular regulations that were made. It was then left exactly on the ſame footing with Carolina.

However, Georgia is beginning to emerge, though ſlowly, out of the difficulties that attended its firſt eſtabliſhment. It is ſtill but indifferently peopled, though it is now forty years ſince its firſt eſtabliſhment. Not one of our colonies was of ſo ſlow a growth, though none had ſo much of the attention of the government or of the people in general, or raiſed ſo great expectations in the beginning. They export ſome corn and lumber to the Eaſt-Indies; they raiſe ſome rice, and of late are going with ſucceſs into indigo. It is not to be doubted but in time, when their internal diviſions are a little better compoſed, the remaining errors in the government corrected, and the people begin to multiply, they will become a uſeful province.

Georgia has towns already known in trade; Savannah the capital, which ſtands very well for buſineſs about ten miles from the ſea, upon a noble river of the ſame name, which is navigable two hundred miles further for large boats, to the ſecond town called Auguſtus,

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which ſtands upon a ſpot of ground of the greateſt fertility, and is ſo commodiouſly ſituated for the Indian trade, that, from the firſt eſtabliſhment of the colony, it has been in a very flouriſhing condition, and maintained, even ſoon after the eſtabliſhment, ſix hundred whites in that trade alone.

The Indian nations on their borders are the upper and lower Creeks, the Chickeſaws, and the Cherokees, who are ſome of the moſt numerous and powerful tribes in America. The trade in ſkins with this people is the largeſt we have, ſince it takes in that of Georgia, the two Carolinas, and that of Virginia. We alſo deal with them in furs, but they are of an inferior ſort.

FLORIDA.

THIS country, which is divided into Eaſt and Weſt Florida, is ſituated between eighty and ninety-one degrees of weſt longitude, and between twenty-five and thirty-two degrees of north latitude, being about five hundred miles in length, and about four hundred and forty in breadth. As it comprehends a part of Louiſiana, we muſt conſider Canada as its northern boundary; it has Carolina, and the Atlantic Ocean on the eaſt, the gulf of Mexico on the ſouth, and New Mexico on the weſt.

The accounts given of the air and climate of this part of America are ſo various, that it is

is difficult to reconcile them. Some repreſent it as a Paradiſe, while others conſider it only as a ſandy deſert. However, the moſt authentic account ſeems to be, that the air is pure and wholeſome, and this ſeems to be proved from the ſize, vigour, and longevity of the Florida Indians, who, in theſe reſpects, far exceed their more ſouthern neighbours, the Mexicans. It is a matter well atteſted, that many gentlemen in a deep conſumption have aſcribed the recovery of their health to that climate; and it is a well-known fact, that the ninth Britiſh regiment, ſtationed on different parts of the coaſt, did not loſe a ſingle man, in the ſpace of twenty months, by natural death.

Eaſt Florida, which borders on the ſea, and and indeed forty miles back, is flat and ſandy; but even the country round St. Auguſtine, to all appearance the worſt in the province, is far from being unfruitful: it every year produces two crops of Indian corn; the garden vegitables are in great perfection; the orange and lemon trees grow here, without cultivation; and the inland country towards the hills is extremely rich and fertile.

Notwithſtanding the advantages of the ſoil, and the encouragement formerly given by the mother country, the ſettlement of theſe provinces has gone on very ſlowly, though great advantages may be derived from its ſituation. As its ports are ſituated in the gulf of Mexico, it will always be a check upon Spain, as it commands the paſſage between her ſettlements;

for the gallions and other ſhips, from their paſſage from Vera Cruz in Mexico to the Havanna, are obliged, on account of the north-eaſt trade winds, to ſtretch away to the northward, and generally keep as near the coaſt of Florida as poſſible. In time of war, Spain, or her ally the French, muſt ſuffer much, the harbours of Florida being happily ſituated for the reception of our ſhips of war, which, while they protect our trade to the Weſt-India iſlands, cannot fail to annoy the commerce of the enemy.

Penſacola, which is the principal town in Weſt Florida, is ſituated within a bay of the ſame name, on a ſandy ſhore, which can only be approached by ſmall veſſels. The road, however, is perhaps the beſt in the gulf of Mexico, in which veſſels may lie in ſafety, fearleſs of the fury of contending elements, being ſurrounded by land on every ſide.

St. Auguſtine, which is the capital of Eaſt Florida, runs along the ſhore, and is tolerably well fortified; but our trade here is of very little conſequence.

MEXICO, *or* NEW SPAIN.

HAVING now given a ſhort but comprehenſive account of the Britiſh dominions on the continent of North America, it ſeems neceſſary, before we enter on the deſcription of the Weſt-Indies and our northern iſlands, to extend our enquiry as far as the Iſthmus of Darien,

Darien, which ſeparates the two continents. Mexico, or New Spain, being the moſt ſouthern boundary of North America, and the principal ſeat of the Spaniſh monarchy in the new world, we ſhall pay it particular attention; but the exact diviſion of the provinces, the courſes of the rivers, the diſtances of places, the dimenſions of harbours and their ſoundings, all theſe, as they are infinitely better known from maps and charts, ſo it would be impertinent and tedious to fill up this ſhort work with them, which propoſes to give, even ſhort as it is, a deſcription of every thing that may tend to a juſt notion of America; and therefore cannot ſacrifice matters of more moment to the deſcription of things, of which a far better idea may be acquired by other means to thoſe whom they concern; and to thoſe whom they do not intereſt, who are far the majority, muſt be tedious and uninſtructive.

The firſt country which the Spaniards ſettled upon the continent of America was Mexico; and it ſtill continues their principal ſettlement, whether we conſider its number of inhabitants, its natural wealth, or its extended traffic. As it lies for the moſt part within the torid zone, it is exceſſively hot; and on the eaſtern coaſt, where the land is low, marſhy, and conſtantly flooded in the rainy ſeaſons, it is likewiſe extremely unwholeſome; neither is that coaſt pleaſant in any reſpect; incumbered for the moſt part with almoſt impenetrable woods of mangrove trees, of a bare

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and disagreeable aspect, and which extend into the water for a considerable way.

The inland country assumes a more agreeable aspect, and the air is of a better temperament; here the tropical fruits grow in great abundance; the land is of a good variety, and would not refuse any sort of grain, if the number or industry of the inhabitants were any way proportioned to the goodness of the soil. But on the western side the land is not so low as on the eastern, much better in quality, and full of plantations.

It is probable the Spaniards chose to leave the eastern coast in its present state of rudeness and desolation, judging that a ruggid and unwholesome frontier is a better defence against an European enemy, than fortifications and armies, to be maintained at a vast expence; or than the strength of the inhabitants, made by the climate effeminate and pusillanimous, and kept so by policy: and indeed it would be next to impossible to make any considerable establishment on that coast, that could effectually answer the purposes of any power in Europe, without struggling with the greatest difficulties; and as for a sudden invasion, the nature of the country itself is a good fortification.

In general, few countries under the same aspect of the heavens, enjoy more of the benefits of nature and the necessaries of life; but, like all the tropical countries, it rather is more abundant in fruits than in grain. Pine apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons,

citrons, figs, and cocoa-nuts, are here in the greateſt plenty and perfection.

The number of their horned cattle is in a manner infinite; ſome private perſons are ſaid to have poſſeſſed forty thouſand head; many are wild, and a very conſiderable trade is driven in their hides and tallow, but the extreme heat prevents their turning the fleſh to any account in commerce. Swine are equally numerous, and their lard is much in requeſt all over this country, where it is uſed inſtead of butter.

Sheep are numerous in Mexico, but we do not find that wool is an article of any great conſideration in their trade; nor is it probable that it is of a good kind, as it is ſcarce ever found uſeful between the tropics, where it is hairy and ſhort, except only in Peru; and and that is the produce of ſheep of a ſpecies very different from that in the reſt of America; as Peru is itſelf remarkably different in climate from all other countries under the torrid zone. But cotton is here very good, and in great plenty. It is manufactured largely; for, as it is very light and ſuitable to the climate, and all other cloathing being extravagantly dear, it is the general wear of the inhabitants; the woollens and linens of Europe being rather luxuries, and worn only by perſons of ſome condition.

Some provinces produce ſilk, but not in that abundance or perfection to make a remarkable part of their export; not but that the country is very fit for that, and many other

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things valuable, which are but little cultivated; for the gold and ſilver, which make the glory of this country, and in the abundant treaſures of which it exceeds all the world, engage almoſt the whole attention of the inhabitants, as they are almoſt the only things for which the Spaniards value their colonies, and what alone receive the encouragement of the court; we ſhall therefore proceed to ſpeak of their gold and ſilver mines, and their manner of purifying thoſe metals.

It is not a matter yet finally determined, whether all or ſome provinces only of New Spain produce mines of gold and ſilver. It is, however, allowed that the chief mines of gold are in Veragua and New Granada, confining upon Darien and Terra Firma. Thoſe of ſilver, which are much more rich as well as numerous, are found in ſeveral parts, but in none ſo much as in the province of Mexico. But all the mines, whether of gold or ſilver, are generally found in the mountainous and barren parts; nature making amends one way for her failures in another.

Gold is found either in the ſand of rivers, native, and in ſmall grains, or it is dug out of the earth in the ſame condition in ſmall bits, almoſt wholly metalic, and of a tolerable purity; or it is found, like the ore of other metals, in an aggregate opaque maſs, in a mixture of earth, ſtone, ſulphur, and other metals. In this ſtate it is of all colours, red, white, blackiſh, and making little or no oſtentation of the riches it contains. Sometimes it

forms part of the ornament of ſome beautiful ſtones, which are of various lively colours, interſected with filaments of this metal, quite native. Lapis lazuli is one of theſe, which has alwas ſome ſmall portions of gold; but this golden ſtreaking is often extremely fallacious, and has betrayed many into ruinous expences; for in ſeveral ſtones theſe fine veins have been nothing more than marcaſite: however, ſuch marcaſites or fire-ſtones are found in mines which contain real gold. But gold, howſoever found, whether native or in what is called the ore, is ſeldom or never without a mixture of other metals, generally ſilver or copper.

The gold mines, though they contain the richeſt of all metals, it is remarkable, moſt frequently diſappoint the hopes and ruin the fortunes of thoſe who engage in them; tho' neither the labouring of the mine, nor the purifying of the metal, is attended with ſuch an expence as what thoſe are obliged to, who work mines of the inferior metals. For the vein is, of all others, the moſt unequal; ſometimes very large, full and rich; then it often decays by a quick gradation, and is ſometimes ſuddenly loſt. But the ends of the veins are, on the other hand, often extremely rich; they are called the purſe of the vein; and when the miner is ſo happy as to light on one of theſe purſes, his fortune is immediately made.

When the ore is dug out, the moſt uſual method is to break it to pieces in a mill, exactly reſembling thoſe large ones we uſe for grinding

grinding apples, wherein a mill-ſtone ſet on end is made to turn in a circular channel of ſtone. When the ore is thus broken, and the gold ſomewhat ſeparated from the impure maſs, they add to the whole a quantity of quickſilver. Quickſilver has, of all other bodies, the greateſt attraction with gold, which therefore immediately breaks the links which held it to the former earth, and clings cloſe to this congenial ſubſtance. Then a rapid ſtream of water is let into the channel, which, ſcouring away (through a hole made for the purpoſe) the lighter earth, by the briſkneſs of its current, leaves the gold and mercury precipitated by its weight at the bottom. This amalgama, or paſte, is put into a linen cloth, and ſqueezed ſo as to make the quickſilver ſeparate and run out. To complete this ſeparation, it is neceſſary to fuſe the metal, and then all the mercury flies off in fumes.

But in many parts of Spaniſh America, another way of getting and purifying gold is practiſed. When by ſure tokens they know that gold lies in the bed of a rivulet, they turn the current into the inward angles, which time and the ſtream have formed; whilſt this runs, they dig and turn up the earth, to make it the more eaſily diſſolved and carried off.

When the ſurface is thus completely waſhed away, and they are come to a ſort of ſtiff earth, which is the receptacle of gold, they return the ſtream into its former channel, and dig up the earth as they find it, which they carry to

a little baſon ſomewhat in the form of a ſmith's bellows. Into this they turn a ſmall but a lively ſtream, to carry off the foreign matter, whilſt they facilitate the operation by ſtirring the maſs with an iron hook, which diſſolves the earth, and gathers up the ſtones, which are carefully thrown out that they may not interrupt the paſſages that carry off the earth.

By this means the gold, looſened from the groſe matter which adhered to it, falls to the bottom, but mixed ſo intimately with a black heavy ſand, that none of the gold can be perceived, unleſs it happens to be a pretty large grain.

To ſeparate it from this ſand, it is put into a ſort of wooden platter, with a little hollow of about the depth of half an inch at bottom. This platter they fill with water, and, turning the maſs about briſkly with their hands for ſome time, the ſand paſſes over the edges, and leaves the gold in ſmall grains, pure, and of its genuine colour, in the hollow at the bottom. Thus is gold refined without fire or mercury, merely by waſhing.

The places where this is performed are called therefore Lavaderos by the Spaniards. There are many more methods of extracting and purifying this precious metal; but theſe are the moſt common ways uſed by the Spaniards in their Indies.

Silver is the metal next in rank, but firſt in conſequence in the Spaniſh traffic, as their mines yield a much greater quantity of the

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latter than the former. It is found in the earth under different forms, as indeed the ore of all metal is. Such is the diverſity of ores in this reſpect, that nothing but a long experience in this particular branch can exactly aſcertain the ſpecies of the metal, which almoſt any ore contains at firſt view.

The manner of refining ſilver does not differ eſſentially from the proceſs which is employed for gold. They are both purified upon the ſame principle; by clearing away as much of the earth as can be with water; by uniting or amalgamating it with mercury, and afterwards by clearing off the the mercury itſelf, by ſtraining and evaporation. But the management of ſilver in this reſpect is much more difficult than that of gold.

The article of commerce, next in conſideration with the Mexicans to gold and ſilver, is cochineal. This is uſed in dying all the ſeveral kinds of the fineſt ſcarlet, crimſon, and purple.

After much diſpute about the nature of this curious drug, it ſeems at laſt agreed, that it is of the animal kind; an inſect of the ſpecies of the gall inſects. This animal is found adhering to various plants, but there is only one which communicates to it the qualities which makes it valuable in medicine and manufactures. This plant is called Opuntia by the botaniſts. It conſiſts wholly of thick ſucculent oval leaves, joined end to end, and ſpreading out on the ſides in various ramifications. The flower is large, and the fruit in ſhape reſembling

ſembling a fig; this fruit is full of a crimſon juice, and to this juice it is that the cochineal inſect owes its colour.

When the rainy ſeaſons come on, they who cultivate this plant, cut off thoſe heads which abound moſt with ſuch inſects, as are not yet at their full growth, and preſerve them very carefully from the weather and all other injuries. Theſe branches, though ſeparated from their parent ſtocks, preſerve their freſhneſs and juices a long time; and this enables the inſect not only to live out the rains, but to grow to its full ſize, and be in readineſs to bring forth its young, as ſoon as the inclemency of the ſeaſon is over.

When this time comes on, they are brought out, and placed upon the proper plants, diſpoſed in little neſts of ſome moſſy ſubſtance. As ſoon as they feel the enlivening influence of the freſh air, they bring forth in three or four days from their expoſure at fartheſt. The young, ſcarce bigger than a mite, runs about with wonderful celerity, and the whole plantation is immediately peopled; yet, what is ſomewhat ſingular, this animal, ſo lively in its infancy, quickly loſes all its activity, and, attaching itſelf to ſome of the leaſt expoſed and moſt ſucculent part of the leaf, it clings there for life, without ever moving, not wounding the leaf for its ſuſtenance, but ſucking with a proboſcis, with which it is furniſhed for this purpoſe.

What is not leſs remarkable than the way of life of this animal, is the nature of the male, which

which has no appearance of belonging to the ſame ſpecies; far from being fixed to a ſpot, he has wings, and is, like the butterfly, continually in motion; they are ſmaller than the cochineal, and conſtantly ſeen amongſt them, and walking over them without being ſuſpected by thoſe who take care of the inſect, of being a creature of the ſame kind, though they believe that the cochineals are impregnated by them. But it is the female cochineal only which is gathered for uſe.

They make four gatherings in a year, which are ſo many genarations of this animal. When they are ſufficiently careful, they bruſh off the inſects one by one with a ſort of hair pencils, and take them as they fall; but they often bruſh the whole plant in a careleſs manner, ſo that fragments of it are mixed with the cochineals, and themſelves mixed, the old and young together, which careleſſneſs abates much of the value; but what chiefly makes the goodneſs of this commodity is, the manner of killing and drying the cochineals, which is performed three ways; the firſt is by dipping the baſket in which it is gathered into boiling water, and afterwards drying them in the ſun; this the Spaniards call *renegrida*. The ſecond method is by drying them in ovens made for the purpoſe; this, from its gray colour, veined with purple, is called *jaſpeade*. The third manner is, when the Indians dry them on their cakes of maze which are baked on flat ſtones; this laſt is the worſt kind, as it

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is generally overbaked, and ſomething burned. They call it *negra*.

This drug has a very uncommon good quality, and the more extraordinary as it belongs to the animal kingdom, and to the moſt periſhable of that kind, that it never decays. Without any other care than having been put by in a box, ſome have been known to keep ſixty, ſome even upwards of an hundred years, and as fit for the purpoſes of medicine, or manufacture, as ever it was. It is uſed in medicine as a cordial and ſudorific, in which intentions few things anſwer better. And indeed, as it anſwers ſuch good purpoſes in medicine, is ſo eſſential in trade, and produced only in this country, it may be conſidered in all markets as equivalent to gold or ſilver, by the certainty and quickneſs of the ſale. It is computed they annually export no leſs than nine hundred thouſand pounds weight of this commodity.

The cocao, or cacao, of which chocolate is made, is a conſiderable article in the natural hiſtory and commerce of New Spain. It grows upon a tree of a middling ſize; the wood is ſpongy and porous, the bark ſmooth, and of a cinnamon colour: the flower grows in bunches between the ſtalks and the wood, of the form of roſes, but ſmall, and without any ſcent. The fruit is a ſort of pod, which contains the cacao, much about the ſize and ſhape of a cucumber. Within there is a pulp of a moſt refreſhing acid taſte, which fills up the interſtices between the nuts before they are ripe;

ripe; but, when they fully ripen, theſe nuts are packed up wonderfully cloſe, and in a moſt regular and elegant order; they have a pretty tough ſhell, and within this is the oily rich ſubſtance of which chocolate is made.

This fruit grows differently from our European fruits, which always hang upon the ſmall branches; but this grows along the body of the great ones, principally at the joints. None are found upon the ſmall, which, though it is a manner of vegetation unknown here, prevails in ſeveral other plants between the tropics. This cacao is a very tender tree, equally impatient of the wind, heat or cold, and will flouriſh only in the ſhade; for which reaſon, in the cacao walks, they always plant a palm-tree for every one of cacao.

We need ſay little of the uſe of this fruit; it is general amongſt ourſelves, and its virtues well known; but, however the great external call for it may be, the internal conſumption is much greater, ſo that in Mexico and Terra Firma, in ſome provinces of which latter it is found in the greateſt perfection, their foreign and domeſtic commerce in this article is immenſe, and the profits immenſely great.

At home it makes the principal part of their diet, and is found wholeſome, nutritious, and ſuitable to the climate. This fruit is often confounded with the cocoa-nut, which is a ſpecies wholly different.

Let us now proceed to enquire particularly into the trade of Mexico, and take a general

ſurvey

ſurvey of its capital city, which bears its own name.

The trade of Mexico may be conſidered as conſiſting of three great branches, by which it communicates with the whole world; the trade with Europe by La Vera Cruz; the trade with the Eaſt-Indies by Acapulco; and the commerce of the South-Sea by the ſame port. The places in New Spain, which can intereſt a ſtranger, are therefore three only, La Vera Cruz, Acapulco, and Mexico.

Mexico, the capital of the kingdom, the reſidence of the viceroy, the ſeat of the firſt audience or chamber of juſtice, and an archbiſhopric, is certainly one of the richeſt and moſt ſplendid cities, not only in America, but in the whole world. Though no ſea-port town, nor communicating with the ſea by any navigable river, it has a prodigious commerce, and is itſelf the center of all that is carried on between America and Europe on one hand, and between America and the Eaſt-Indies on the other; for here the principal merchants reſide, the greateſt part of the buſineſs is negociated; and the goods ſent from Acapulco to La Vera Cruz, or from La Vera Cruz to Acapulco, for the uſe of the Philippines, and in a great meaſure for the uſe of Peru and Lima, all paſs through this city, and employ an incredible number of horſes and mules in the carriage.

Hither too all the gold and ſilver come to be coined, here the king's fifth is depoſited, and here is wrought all that immenſe quantity of

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utenſils and ornaments in plate, which is every year ſent into Europe. Every thing here has the greateſt air of magnificence and wealth; the ſhops glitter upon all ſides with the expoſure of gold, ſilver, and jewels, and ſurprize yet more by the work of the imagination upon the treaſures which fill great cheſts piled up to the cielings, whilſt they wait the time of being ſent to Old Spain.

It is ſaid that the negro wenches, who run by the coaches of the ladies there, wear braceletes of gold, pearl necklaces, and jewels in their ears, whilſt the black foot-boys are all over covered with lace and embroidery.

It cannot exactly be aſcertained what number of people are in this city. It is certainly very conſiderable, by many not made leſs than ſeventy or eighty thouſand. This city itſelf is well and regularly built, though the houſes are not lofty; the monaſteries are numerous, and richly endowed, and the churches extravagantly rich in their ornaments, though comparatively poor in the taſte of their architecture.

The port neareſt to this city is Acapulco upon the South-Sea, upwards of two hundred miles diſtant from the capital. Acapulco, itſelf has one of the deepeſt, ſecureſt, and moſt commodious harbours in the South-Sea, and indeed almoſt the only one which is good upon the weſtern coaſt of New Spain. The entrance of the harbour is defended by a caſtle of tolerable ſtrength; the town itſelf is but ill built, and makes every way but a miſerable

figure, except at the time of the fairs, when it intirely changes its appearance, and becomes one of the moſt conſiderable marts in the world.

About the month of December, the great galleon, which makes the whole communication that is between America and the Philippines, after a voyage of five months, and ſailing three thouſand leagues without ſeeing any other land than the Little Ladrones, arrives here loaded with all the rich commodities of the eaſt; cloves, pepper, cinnamon, nutmegs, mace, china, japan wares, callicoes plain and painted, chints, muſlins of every ſort, ſilks, precious ſtones, rich drugs, and gold duſt.

At the ſame time the annual ſhip from Lima comes in, and is not computed to bring leſs than two millions of pieces of eight in ſilver, beſides quickſilver, cacao, drugs and other valuable commodities, to be laid out in the purchaſe of the commodities of the Eaſt-Indies. Several other ſhips from different parts of Chili and Peru meet upon the ſame occaſion; and, beſides the traffic for the Philippine commodities, this cauſes a very large dealing for every thing thoſe countries have to exchange with one another, as well as for the purchaſe of all ſorts of European goods. The fair laſts ſometimes for thirty days.

As ſoon as the goods are diſpoſed of, the galleon prepares to ſet out on her voyage to the Philippines with her returns, chiefly in ſilver, but with ſome European goods too, and ſome other commodities of America. We

ſpeak

ſpeak here, as though there were but one veſſel on the trade with the Philippines; and in fact there is only nominally one trading veſſel, the galleon itſelf, of about twelve hundred tons; but another attends her commonly as a ſort of convoy, which generally carries ſuch a quantity of goods as pretty much diſables her from performing that office. The galleon has often above a thouſand people on board, either intereſted in the cargoe, or merely paſſangers; and there is no trade in which ſo large profits are made; the captain of the veſſel, the pilots, their mates, and even the common ſailors, making in one voyage, what in their ſeveral ranks may be conſidered as eaſy fortunes.

It is ſaid, by the writer of Lord Anſon's voyage, that the jeſuits have the profits of this ſhip to ſupport their miſſions; and if ſo, their gains muſt be extremely great.

This commerce to ſo vaſt a value, though carried on directly between the king of Spain's own dominions, enriches them in proportion but very little; the far greater part of every thing that comes from the Philippines being the produce, or the fabric, of other countries; the Spaniards add none of the artificial value of labour to any thing. The Chineſe are largely intereſted in this cargoe, and it is to them they are indebted for the manufacturing of ſuch of their plate, as is wrought into any better faſhion than rude ingots or inelegant coins.

When this fair is over, the town is comparatively deſerted; however, it remains for the

whole year the moſt conſiderable port in Mexico, for the trade with Peru and Chili, which is not very great. The Eaſt-India goods brought hither are carried on mules to Mexico, from whence what exceeds their own conſumption is ſent by land-carriage to La Vera Cruz, to paſs over the Terra Firma, to the Iſlands, and ſome even to Old Spain, though in no great quantity.

From the port of La Vera Cruz, it is that the great wealth of Mexico is poured out upon all the old world; and it is from this port alone, that they receive the luxuries and neceſſaries that the old world yields them in return. To this port the annual fleet from Cadiz, called the flota, arrives about the latter end of November, after a paſſage of nine weeks.

This fleet, which ſails only from Cadiz, conſiſts of about three men of war as a convoy, and fourteen or fifteen large merchant ſhips, from four hundred to one thouſand tons burthen. They are loaded almoſt with every ſort of goods which Europe produces for export; all ſorts of woollens, linens, ſilks, velvets, laces, glaſs, paper, cutlery, all ſorts of wrought iron, watches, clocks, quickſilver, horſe furniture, ſhoes, ſtockings, books, pictures, military ſtores, wines, and fruits; ſo that all the trading parts of Europe are highly intereſted in the cargoe of this fleet. Spain itſelf ſends out little more than wine and fruit. This, with the freight and commiſſions to the merchant and the duty to the king, is almoſt all

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the advantage which that kingdom derives from her commerce with the Indies.

It is ſtrictly prohibited to load any commodities on board this fleet without entering the goods, the value, and the owners name, in the India houſe at Seville; and when they return, they muſt bring a certificate, from the proper officer there, that the goods were duly landed, and in the proper port. They are not permitted to break bulk upon any account until they arrive at La Vera Cruz, nor are they ſuffered to take in any other than Spaniſh paſſengers, nor them without a licence firſt obtained at the India-houſe.

Jealouſy is the glaring character of the court of Spain, in whatever regards their American empire; and they often ſacrifice their proſperity to an exceſſive regard to the ſecurity of their poſſeſſions. They attend in this trade principally to two objects; the excluſion of all ſtrangers from any ſhare in it, and the keeping up of the market for ſuch goods as they ſend; and they think both theſe ends beſt anſwered by ſending out one annual fleet, and that from one only port in Spain, and to one port only in Mexico. Theſe views, which would be impolitic in any power in Europe beſides, are judicious enough in Spain; becauſe the goods they ſend belonging moſtly to ſtrangers, and the profits upon the ſale in the Indies being the only thing that really accrues to themſelves, it is certainly right to conſult primarily how they ſhall get the greateſt returns upon the ſmalleſt quantity of goods.

It would be quite otherwiſe, if all, or moſt of what they ſend abroad, were their own produce or manufacture. They are undoubtedly right too in keeping the trade very carefully to themſelves, though perhaps the means taken to attain this end will not be thought ſo rational. By ſuffering all the trade to be carried on only between two ports, they diſcourage in the old world all their towns from that emulation, which would not only enable them to traffic in foreign commodities, but in time to ſet up fabrics of their own; whereas now, with regard to the export of their commodities, they ſtand upon the level of ſtrangers; they cannot carry their produce directly to the beſt market; and it is very certain, that even trifling diſcouragements operate very powerfully where the commercial ſpirit is weak, and the trade in its infancy.

When all the goods brought by the flota are landed, and diſpoſed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious ſtones, cochineal, indigo, cocoa, tobacco, ſugar and hides, which are their returns for Old Spain. Sometimes in May, but more frequently in Auguſt, they are ready to depart.

From La Vera Cruz they ſail to the Havannah in the iſle of Cuba, which is the place of rendezvous where they meet the galleons; another fleet, which carries on all the trade of Terra Firma by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto-bello, in the ſame manner that the flota ſerves for that of New Spain. When they arrive at this port, and join the

galleons

galleons, and the regiſter ſhips that collect at the ſame port from all quarters, ſome of the cleaneſt and beſt ſailing of their veſſels are diſpatched to Spain, with advice of the contents of theſe ſeveral fleets, as well as with treaſure and goods of their own, that the court may judge what indulto or duty is proper to be laid on them, and what convoy is neceſſary for their ſafety. Theſe fleets generally make ſome ſtay at the Havannah, before all the ſhips that compoſe them are collected and ready to ſail.

As ſoon as this happens they quit the Havannah, and beat through the gulph of Florida, and, paſſing between the Bahama iſlands, hold their courſe to the north-eaſt, until they come to the height of St. Auguſtin, and then ſteer away to Old Spain.

When the flota has left La Vera Cruz, it has no longer the appearance of a place of conſequence; it is a town in a very unhealthy ſituation, inhabited ſcarcely by any but Indians, Meztezes, or negroes. All the merchants of any conſequence reſide at ſome diſtance, at a place called Los Angelos.

The inhabitants of New Spain are compoſed of people of three different races; whites, Indians, and negroes, or the ſeveral mixtures of thoſe. The whites are either born in Old Spain, or they are Creoles; thoſe who are native Spaniards are moſtly in offices, or in trade, and have the ſame character and manners with the Spaniards of Europe; the ſame gravity of behaviour, the ſame natural ſaga-

city

city and good ſenſe, the ſame indolence, and yet a greater ſhare of pride and ſtatelineſs; for here they look upon the being natives of Old Spain as a very honourable diſtinction, and are in return looked upon by the creoles with no ſmall ſhare of hatred and envy.

The latter have little of that firmneſs and patience, which make one of the fineſt parts of the character of the native Spaniard. They have little courage, and are univerſally weak and effeminate. Living as they do in a conſtant enervating heat, ſurfeited with wealth, and giving up their whole time to loitering and inactive pleaſures, they have nothing bold or manly to fit them fot making a figure in active life; and few or none have any taſte for the ſatisfaction of a learned retirement. Luxurious without variety or elegance, and expenſive with great parade and little conveniency, their general character is no more than a grave and ſpecious inſignificance.

They are temperate at their tables and in their cups; but, from idleneſs and conſtitution, their whole buſineſs is amour and intrigue; theſe they carry on in the Old Spaniſh taſte, by doing and ſaying extravagant things, by bad muſic, worſe poetry, and exceſſive expences. Their ladies are little celebrated for their chaſtity or domeſtic virtues; but they are ſtill a good deal reſtrained by the old-faſhioned etiquette, and they exert a genius, which is not contemptible, in combating the reſtraints which that lays them under.

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The clergy are extremely numerous, and their wealth and influence cannot be doubted amongſt ſo rich and ſuperſtitious a people. It is ſaid, that they actually poſſeſs a fourth of the revenues of that whole kingdom; which, after all abatements, certainly amounts to ſeveral millions. And as to their numbers, it is not extravagant to ſay, that prieſts, monks, and nuns of all orders, are upwards of one fifth of all the white people, both here and in the other parts of Spaniſh America. But, the clergy here being too ignorant in general to be able inſtructors by their preaching, and too looſe and debauched in their own manners, to inſtruct by their example, the people are little the better for their numbers, wealth, or influence. Many of them are little better than adventurers from Old Spain, who, without regard for their character or their vows, ſtudy nothing but how to raiſe a ſudden fortune, by abuſing the ignorance and extreme credulity of the people.

A great deal of attention is paid to certain mechanical methods of devotion. Moral duties are little talked of. An extreme veneration for ſaints, lucrative to the orders they have founded or are ſuppoſed to patronize, is ſtrongly inculcated, and makes the general ſubject of their ſermons, deſigned rather to raiſe a ſtupid admiration of their miracles, than an imitation of the ſanctity of their lives.

However, having ſaid this, it muſt be conſidered as all general obſervations, with the reaſonable allowances; for many of the dignified

fied clergy, and others among them, underſtand and practice the duties of their ſtation.

The Indians here are reduced to more of a civilized life, than they are in the colonies of any other European nation. This race of people are now, whatever they were formerly, humble, dejected, timorous, and docile; they are generally treated with great indignity. The ſtate of all people ſubjected to another people is infinitely worſe than what they ſuffer from the preſſure of the worſt form, or the worſt adminiſtration, of any government of their own.

The blacks here, as they are imported from Africa, have the ſame character as the blacks of our colonies; ſtubborn, hardy, of an ordinary underſtanding, and fitted for the groſs ſlavery they endure.

Such are the characters of the people, not only of New Spain, but of all Spaniſh America.

The civil government is adminiſtered by tribunals, which here are called *audiences*, conſiſting of a certain number of judges, divided into different chambers, more reſembling the parliaments in France than our courts. At the head of the chief of theſe chambers the viceroy himſelf preſides when he ſees fit. His employment is one of the greateſt truſt and power the king of Spain has in his gift; and is perhaps the richeſt government entruſted to any ſubject in the world.

All employments here are held only by native Spaniards, and by them but for a certain limited time; at moſt not above three years.

Jealouſy,

jealouſy, in this reſpect, as in all others relative to the Indies, is the ſpirit that influences all their regulations; and it has this very bad effect; that every officer, from the higheſt to the loweſt, has the avidity which a new and lucrative poſt inſpires; ravenous becauſe his time is ſhort, he oppreſſes the people and defrauds the crown; another ſucceeds him with the ſame diſpoſitions; and no man is careful to eſtabliſh any thing uſeful in his office, knowing that his ſucceſſor will be ſure to trample upon every regulation which is not ſubſervient to his own intereſts; ſo that this enſlaved people has not the power of putting in uſe the fox's policy, of letting the firſt ſwarm of blood-ſuckers ſtay on, but is obliged to ſubmit to be drained by a conſtant ſucceſſion of hungry and impatient harpies.

There are ſome troops kept in New Spain, and a good revenue appropriated for their maintenance, and for the ſupport of the fortifications there; but the ſoldiers are few, ill cloathed, ill paid, and worſe diſciplined; the military here keep pace with the civil and eccleſiaſtical adminiſtration, and every thing is a jobb.

With reſpect to NEW MEXICO, we ſhall only obſerve, that it lies to the north and north-eaſt of New Spain. Its bounds to the north are not aſcertained. Taking in California, it has the great South-Sea to the Weſt, and to the eaſt it is bounded by the lands on the Miſſiſippi.

This country lies for the moſt part within the temperate zone, and has a moſt agreeable climate,

climate, and a ſoil in many places productive of every thing for profit and delight. It has rich mines of ſilver, and ſome of gold, which are worked more and more every day; and it produces precious ſtones of ſeveral kinds; but it has no direct intercouſe with any part of Europe.

The country is but little known at all to Europeans; and the Spaniſh ſettlements they are comparatively weak; however, they are every day increaſing in proportion as they diſcover mines; which are here not inferior to any that have been diſcovered in the other parts of America.

The inhabitants are moſtly Indians; but in many places lately reduced, by the Spaniſh miſſionaries, to chriſtianity, to a civilized life, to follow trades, and to raiſe corn and wine, which they now export pretty largely to old Mexico.

The famous peninſula of California is a part, and far from an inconſiderable part of this country. It is a place finely ſituated for trade, and has a pearl fiſhery of great value. It was diſcovered by the great conqueror of Mexico, Hernando Cortes. Our famous admiral and navigator, Sir Francis Drake, landed there, and took poſſeſſion of in 1678; and he not only took poſſeſſion, but obtained the beſt right in the world to the poſſeſſion; the principal king having formally inveſted him with his principality. However, England has not thought of aſſerting that right ſince his time.

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END of the FIRST VOLUME.